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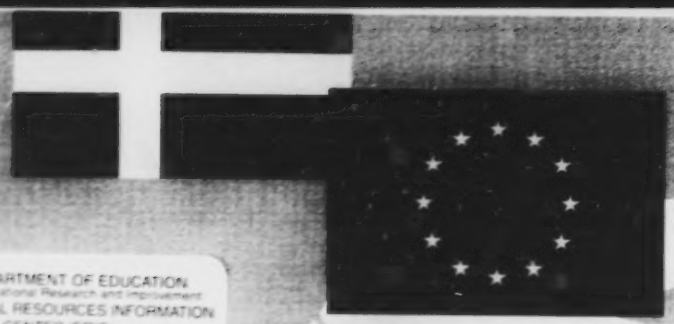
ABSTRACT

Rather than a distinct vocational education and training (VET) system, Swedish institutions include VET as part of an educational philosophy stressing equity, integration, and comprehensiveness. The VET system forms part of a comprehensive model of education stressing active citizenship, work life orientation, and preparation for further studies. The radical reform of the upper secondary system in 1991 resulted in decentralization, new curricula, and more individual choice. Measures taken to develop a more integrated system at the upper secondary level include extension of all programs to 3 years and application of a core curriculum approach to both academic and vocational programs. Of the 16 nationally determined programs, 14 are primarily vocational and 2 are focused on preparation for university. Important institutions at the adult and higher education level include vocational programs in municipal adult education, employment training, in-company training, and staff development. Trade unions have their own extensive education programs. The VET system is overwhelmingly publicly run and financed, with very few private providers of training. At the upper secondary level, national tests determine the achievement of quality standards. However, there is no formal system such as tests, diplomas, or national qualifications to recognize the acquisition of vocational skills and competencies. Among current trends influencing the VET system in Sweden are new developments in work and society that form a new context for policy implementation. These new developments include the following: the growth of unemployment, changing skill requirements, a new intercultural context, the challenge of lifelong learning, and deskilling and upgrading. (Four appendixes contain the following: acronyms and abbreviations, addresses of 20 major organizations, 81 resources and references, and a glossary.) (KC)



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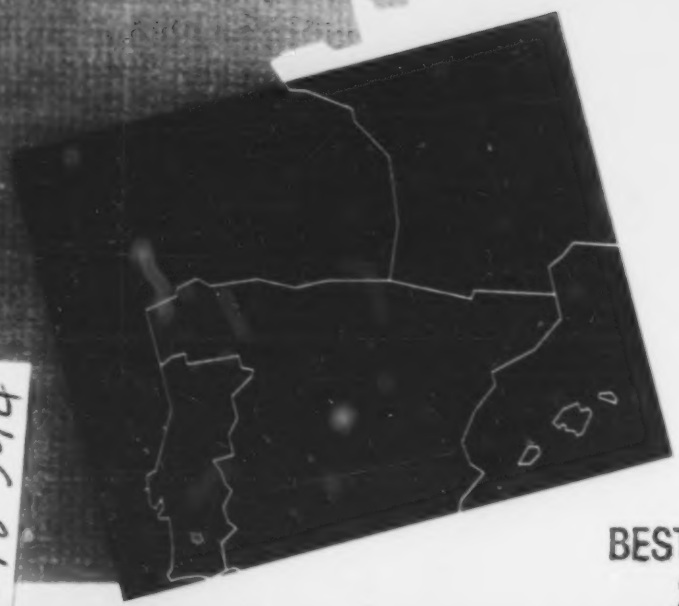

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Vocational education and training in Sweden

This monograph has been prepared by

Kenneth Abrahamsson, Programme Director for Labour Market Studies, Swedish Council for Work Life Research, at the request of the Swedish EU Programme Office for Education, Training and Competence Development

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Marinou Antipa 12, GR-57001 Thessaloniki
Postal address:
PO Box 27 – Finikas, GR-55102 Thessaloniki

Tel. (30-31) 490 111
Fax (30-31) 490 102
E-mail: info@cedefop.gr
Homepage: www.cedefop.gr
Interactive website: www.trainingvillage.gr

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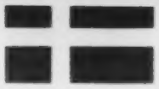

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CEDEFOP Introduction

Objective and target groups

The publication of this description of the vocational education and training (VET) system in Sweden is a step towards extending the series of descriptions of the (then 12) Member States published by Cedefop between 1993 and 1996, to include the three new Member States and countries covered by the European Economic Area (EEA) agreement. The objective is to present an overview of vocational education and training activities in Sweden so that it is easily understood by interested 'foreigners'. The target group includes those who may be responsible for, and concerned with, VET policy issues, researchers in this field, directors of vocational training departments or institutions, and trainers and teachers, whether they work at EU or Member State level, or for a governmental or social partner organisation. Some may be using the text at their desks as a reference document, others may be visiting the country concerned either on a study visit or to plan or execute a bi- or multilateral project and so may be more likely to wish to read the document from beginning to end.

Content and structure

The volumes in this series set out to describe initial and continuing vocational education and training. As far as initial VET is concerned, this means including provision which is in some cases the responsibility of Ministries of Education and in others of Ministries of Employment or Social Affairs. As far as continuing VET is concerned it requires coverage of provision for both the employed and unemployed, usually by a wide range of governmental bodies and ministries, by private and social partner organisations.

The structure of the report (see the list of contents) has been laid down in some detail by Cedefop, which has also placed limits on how long it should be. This is to make it easier for readers to make comparisons between the training systems in various EU Member States. The structure is, in general terms, similar to that adopted for the reports on the Member States commissioned in 1992, but there have been some changes such as the addition of a chapter on what we have called 'qualitative aspects', including information on certification, training of trainers and guidance. We are requiring the authors of all monographs, including those updating the existing ones, to follow this amended structure, so as to facilitate readers who wish to try to make comparisons between the systems.

Choice of author and consultation procedures

For this series Cedefop has tried to achieved a product which in some way is impossible. We wished to have a report written by an insider of the system concerned, but easily comprehensible to the outsider. It followed that the person/institution chosen as an author is an insider, located in the country being described and, unless, as is the case in Sweden, they choose not to do so, writing in their native language. A further corollary of this was that Cedefop has tried to play the role of 'outsider' in discussions on the draft text, in order to draw authors' attention to places where the report was likely not to be easily understood by the public for which it is intended.

Cedefop has also stipulated that the authors must carry out a consultation on the draft with the main parties involved in VET in their country. This has meant their sending the draft not only to the various public bodies responsible for organising the system and providing VET, but also to the principal representative bodies of the social partners. The assistance of the members of Cedefop's Management Board in the country concerned has in particular been requested in connection with this.

Publishing and updating

It is Cedefop's intention, as long as the necessary resources are available, to publish these monographs in paper form in their original language and in English, French and German. In occasional and exceptional circumstances it may publish some monographs in additional languages. Experience has shown, however, that the time-scale involved in translating and publishing in hard copy form and the rate of change in the systems described means that the reports can almost never be entirely up-to-date. Cedefop intends therefore also to use electronic means of publishing, including making summaries and updates of the texts available on Cedefop's Internet site and the publication of a CD-ROM.

Comments and feedback

As indicated above, Cedefop is conscious that in preparing this series it has had to make choices. We would very much appreciate having readers' views as to whether we have made the right ones concerning the scope, content and structure of the report. We would be pleased to have your comments by letter, fax or e-mail.

Vocational education and training in Sweden

Vocational education and training in Sweden may have many similarities to those in other Member States, and particularly in the Nordic countries. It does, however, have many unique elements. Firstly, it is not a system with specific objectives and clear boundaries, rather it forms part of a comprehensive model of education stressing active citizenship, work life orientation and preparation for further studies. Of special interest is the role of core curriculum and general skills as well as the degree to which the system has been modularised and the very wide range of provision available in continuing vocational education and training. It is interesting that it is a system in which the Ministry of Education and Science and the Ministry of Labour share the responsibility for continuing vocational training and where national agencies such as the National Agency for Education and the National Labour Market Board play a key role in continuing VET, but also one in which the social partner organisations have a considerable influence. Although therefore school, rather than company, based, it is a system in which emphasis has been laid on ensuring that curricula and qualifications are updated and meet the needs of the workplace, particularly in relation to the use of new technologies. In addition value for money is very much emphasised and there has been a decentralisation of many aspects of management of the system to municipalities and to individual institutions. The system remains however, overwhelmingly a publicly run and financed one, with very few private providers of training.

We are very grateful to the Swedish EU Programme Office, particularly to Mr Torsten Thunberg, and to Dr Kenneth Abrahamsson of the Swedish Council for Work Life Research, who prepared this monograph. They responded very positively to the comments and proposals for changes which Cedefop made. We hope that together we have provided the reader with a useful tool.

Stavros Stavrou
Deputy Director

J. Michael Adams
Reinhard Nöbauer
Project co-ordinators

Thessaloniki, March 1998

Contents

Author' preface	9
Preface by the Swedish EU Programme Office	10
Chapter 1 — General information	13
1.1. Political and administrative infrastructure	13
1.1.1. Government and constitution	13
1.1.5. Regional and local administration	14
1.1.8. Crucial role of municipalities	14
1.1.10. Responsibilities at national level	15
1.2. The population	16
1.2.1. Demographic trends	16
1.2.7. Migration	20
1.2.9. Educational attainment	21
1.3. Economy and labour force	26
1.3.1. Production and employment	26
1.3.3. Rise of unemployment	28
1.3.9. Youth unemployment a major problem	30
1.3.10. Unemployment and new skill profiles	32
Chapter 2 — The education system: a brief description	35
2.1. Historical background	35
2.2. Some general characteristics	37
2.2.1. Basic principles	37
2.2.4. Compulsory education	37
2.2.8. Schools for special groups	38
2.2.12. Post-compulsory education	39
2.2.13. Adult education in the public school system	39
2.2.15. Swedish language instruction for immigrants	40
2.2.16. National schools for adults and distance education	40
2.2.19. Definition of initial and continuing vocational training	41
2.3. Legislation, resource allocation and implementation of education and training policies	41
2.3.1. Central level	41
2.3.8. Local level	43
2.3.13. Local cooperation on vocational education	44
2.3.16. Inspection	44
2.3.17. Financing	44
2.3.22. Educational expenditure	45
Chapter 3 — The vocational education and training (VET) system	49
3.1. Historical development of vocational education and training	49
3.1.1. Industrial development and shifting skill requirements in society	49
3.1.3. Vocational training before 1950	49
3.1.8. The period from 1950 to 1990	51
3.1.12. Vocational education and training as part of modern adult education	52
3.1.16. Educational leave	53
3.1.17. Stronger links between vocational and popular education	53
3.2. Initial vocational education and training (IVT)	54
3.2.1. Reforming initial vocational education	54
3.2.9. Participation and transition rates	57
3.2.10. New programme structure	58
3.2.14. Programme structure and participation	60
3.2.16. A common core of subjects in all programmes	61
3.2.19. Work place training (APU)	63
3.2.21. Further development of choice options — course based schools	63
3.2.23. Towards a continuous reform evaluation	64
3.2.26. Continuing gender bias in upper secondary education	65
3.2.27. The individual programme as an essential element in upper secondary education	67
3.2.28. The upper secondary school reform requires new forms of organisation and new thinking	67

3.2.29. Goal documents and grades have been widely discussed 68
3.2.30. Different vocational traditions – an obstacle to cooperation 68
3.2.32. Teaching groups have become more heterogeneous 69
3.2.34. Workplace training is highly valued 70
3.2.35. Freedom of choice imposes demands on information and guidance 70
3.2.36. Upper secondary adult education 71
3.3. Continuing vocational training (CVT) 71
3.3.1. Vocational training in municipal adult education 71
3.3.9. Participation in CVT and municipal adult education 73
3.3.11. Municipal adult education 74
3.3.13. Labour market policies and employment training 75
3.3.18. Overview of labour market training programmes 76
3.3.19. Programmes to improve the match between jobs and job seekers 76
3.3.20. Programmes to encourage demand for labour and generate employment 77
3.3.21. Programmes aimed at supporting individuals 77
3.3.25. Programmes aimed at companies 79
3.3.27. Employment training 80
3.3.33. In-company training (ICT) 84
3.3.38. In-company training by size of enterprise 87
3.3.40. Providers of vocational training or corporate learning 88
3.3.41. Trade unions 89
3.3.42. Forms of arrangements for inter-company provision of CVT 89
3.3.43. New initiatives to broaden higher education 89
3.3.47. Concluding comments on access to, and provision of, CVT 91

Chapter 4 — Regulatory and financial framework 93
4.1. Admission to vocational education and training 93
4.1.1. Access to the public school system for adults 93
4.1.2. National distance schools for adults 93
4.1.3. Higher education 93
4.1.4. Employment training 93
4.1.5. Commissioned education 94
4.1.6. Folk high schools 94
4.2. Administrative and regulatory arrangements 94
4.2.1. Laws concerning vocational education and training 94
4.2.2. Ministry of Education and Science 94
4.2.7. Ministry of Labour 95
4.2.9. Regulated occupations 97
4.2.11. Educational leave 97
4.3. Role of social partners 98
4.3.1. Historical background 98
4.3.3. Collective bargaining and agreements/joint action 98
4.3.9. Links between social partners and public institutions 100
4.3.11. Other joint sectoral bodies 100
4.4. Financing vocational education and training 101
4.4.1. Total investment and sources of investment 101
4.4.6. Costs per student/trainee 103
4.4.8. Incentives for corporate investment in CVT 103
4.4.9. Incentives for individual investment in CVT 104
4.4.11. Study assistance 104
4.4.14. Wage levels before and after education 106

Chapter 5 — Qualitative aspects 107
5.1. Certification in a decentralised context 107
5.1.1. Demand for vocational training 107
5.1.3. No system of occupational skills certification 107
5.1.6. No certification in popular adult education 108
5.2. Quality standards and quality assurance methods 108
5.2.1. National quality assurance 108
5.2.2. Upper secondary education and municipal adult education 109
5.2.5. Employment training 110
5.2.7. Private initiatives in quality assurance 110

5.3. Training of vocational teachers and training personnel 111
5.3.1. Categories of personnel 111
5.3.4. Regulations for vocational teachers 112
5.3.5. Training of VET teachers in upper secondary schools 112
5.3.7. Further teacher training – career development 113
5.4. Vocational guidance 113
5.4.1. Information and counselling in vocational education 113
5.4.2. Cooperation between the compulsory school and working life 114
5.4.4. Provision of vocational guidance for the poorly qualified and/or unemployed 114
5.4.6. AMI – employability institutes 114
5.5. Research on vocational education and training 115

Chapter 6 — Trends and perspective 117
6.1. New conditions for policy implementation 117
6.2. Vocational education and training in a new societal context 118
6.2.1. Education and the growth of unemployment 118
6.2.3. Changing skill requirements 119
6.2.5. New intercultural context 119
6.3. The challenge for VET in a lifelong learning society 120
6.3.3. CVT beyond employment training 120
6.3.6. From deskilling to upgrading 122

Annexes 123
Annex 1 — Acronyms and abbreviations 125
Annex 2 — Major organisations 127
Annex 3 — Bibliography and sources 130
A. Major sources for the study 130
B. Bibliography 131
Annex 4 — Glossary of terms 135

Author's preface

This monograph on vocational education and training in Sweden has been written according to the guidelines of Cedefop's series of reports on vocational education and training patterns in EU Member States. Its purpose is to present a broad description of vocational education and training as part of the Swedish system of education and to locate it in the current labour market context. It is written to meet the needs of experienced practitioners, educational administrators or students of comparative education. Furthermore it can serve as background information in the continuous exchange of ideas and dialogue on the future design of vocational education and training in Europe.

There is no distinct system of vocational education and training in Sweden. Rather, the institutions promoting VET provision form part of a general educational philosophy stressing values such as equity, integration and comprehensiveness. A number of measures have been taken to develop a more integrated system at upper secondary level. The most important mechanisms are the extension of all programmes to three years and the application of the concept of a core curriculum in all programmes irrespective of whether they have an academic or vocational focus.

In addition, vocational education and training play a central function at adult and higher education level. The most important institutional settings are vocational programmes in municipal adult education, employment training programmes, in-company training and staff development programmes. To some extent, VET programmes are also delivered at higher education level.

It is not easy to prepare an accurate and enduring description of an educational system which is subject to major organisational renewal and changes resulting from societal demand. The Swedish system of education underwent a radical change in the early 1990s with far-reaching decentralisation in decision making and influence, new curricula and a new openness to individual choice and private schooling.

Today, educational policies including the massive expansion of education at upper secondary and higher education levels are top-priorities in combating unemployment. Given the speed and size of educational change in Sweden, the monograph focuses on general trends and broader issues rather than fragmented or detailed information that might become obsolete in the near future.

As has been stated in the Cedefop introduction, the Swedish report is an exception to the rule that the report should be written in the described country's mother tongue. The reason is that it is a revision of *'Continuing vocational training: national report from Sweden'*, (Swedish Ministry of Education and Science, 1994), which had already been published in English. Substantial additions have, however, been made on current statistics and policy documents provided by the Swedish Ministry of Education and Science and the Swedish EU Programme Office for Education and Competence. The author is grateful to a number of persons who have generously given critical comments, suggested additions or pointed to the need for more accurate statistics. In the inner-support circle, special thanks are given to Ulla Arnell, Maud Carlsson, Gunnar Eliasson, Per-Erik Ellström, Jonas Erkman, Hans-Olof Hagén, Lise-Lott Hansson, Robert Höghielm, Anders Nilsson, Ingela Nyman, Bengt Petersson, Anders Plesner, Ulla-Stina Ryking, Levi Svenningsson, Sven Sundin, Torsten Thunberg, Per-Olof Thång, Brian Turner and Lena Wirkkala. Finally, the author very much appreciates the critical comments and valuable contribution from Michael Adams, Cedefop, who is coping with the challenging task of stimulating good comparative descriptions of vocational education and training systems in Europe. There is a genuine need for better knowledge of vocational training systems both to develop the European economy, and also to counteract unemployment and promote lifelong learning.

Kenneth Abrahamsson
Stockholm, September 1997

Preface by the Swedish EU Programme Office

The Swedish EU Programme Office is a governmental agency whose task is to prepare and implement particular EU programmes within Sweden and to strengthen European transnational cooperation. Leonardo, Socrates (with the exception of Erasmus), Objective 4 within the European Social Fund, ADAPT and Employment are supervised by the Swedish EU Programme Office, which also has responsibility for some bi- or multilateral exchange programmes.

As a member of the Cedefop documentary information network we are very eager to exchange knowledge and experiences on vocational education and training and thereby to contribute to the development of VET in Europe. We are very happy that we had the opportunity to contribute to this monograph and look forward to any comments or questions from readers all over Europe. Do not hesitate to contact the Swedish EU Programme Office.

Torsten Thunberg
Responsible for cooperation with Cedefop

The Swedish EU
PROGRAMME OFFICE
Education, Training and Competence Development

Svenska EU-programkontoret
Box 7785
S-103 96 Stockholm
E-mail: cedefop@eupro.se
Internet: http://www.eupro.se

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Vocational education and training in Sweden

12 **Sweden – Counties and major cities**

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Chapter I
General information

1.1. Political and administrative infrastructure

Government and constitution

1.1.1.
Sweden is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary form of government. Since the constitutional reform of 1974, the monarch has had purely ceremonial functions as Head of State while the formal power of decision rests with the Government.

Parliament *(Riksdagen)* is the country's highest decision-making body. Since 1971 it has had a single chamber with 349 members, who are chosen by direct election every four years. The Social Democrats returned to power again in the election of September 1994, although in a minority position relying on other parties for support.

1.1.2.
The government is headed by the Prime Minister, who is appointed by parliament on the recommendation of the Speaker taking into account political support of the different parties. The responsibility for vocational education and training is shared between the Ministry of Education and Science and the Ministry of Labour. The responsibility for initial vocational education as part of upper secondary schooling and formal adult education lies with the Ministry of Education, while the Ministry of Labour has responsibility for continuing vocational education and employment training.

1.1.3.
Popular movements and the social partners have played a significant role in the development of modern Sweden. Formal education has been developed through decisions by parliament and the government, whilst vocational education and in-company training (see Annex 4 for definition of this and other terms) have also been influenced by the social partners. Thus a major part of continuing vocational training is not regulated by the government or parliament, but is subject to the negotiations and local solutions of the social partners. This is particularly true of in-company training and various forms of workplace learning.

1.1.4.
Neutrality in foreign politics has been a fundamental value promoted by modern Swedish governments. Thus, Sweden is not a member of NATO. For many years Sweden was a founding member of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA). Sweden is also an active member of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). In 1972, Sweden signed a wide-ranging free trade agreement with the European Community and on 1 July 1991, the important step of applying for membership of the European Union (EU) was taken. After more than three decades of hesitation, the Swedish people voted on 13 November 1994 to join the European Union from 1 January 1995. The outcome was quite even between supporting and opposing groups: 52.3 % voted Yes and 46.8 % said No with 0.9 % blank ballots. The result of the referendum opened the way to Swedish membership of the Union and to seats in the European Parliament. Membership of the European

Union has broadened contacts and networks on education and research, e.g. on issues such as international comparison of education systems, equivalence and recognition of qualifications as well as joint research and development projects.

Regional and local administration

1.1.5.
Sweden is divided into 24 counties and 288 municipalities. From 1998 onwards the number of counties is being reduced to 21 due to a reform of the regional state administration. Each county is governed by a county board *(länsstyrelse)* with the county governor *(landshövding)* acting as its chairman. The governor and members of the county boards are appointed by the government. The mandate of the county boards with respect to education covers structural aspects of education policy and vocational training, e.g. surveys on the educational attainment of the workforce and the regional infrastructure of education and training institutions. In addition, these bodies are responsible for industrial policies and for development and support to small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). The former regional boards for schools and formal adult education and also the separate boards for higher education have been abolished during the last two decades.

1.1.6.
Local and regional authorities in Sweden have a wide area of operations comprising, for example, education, health and medical care, as well as social planning. These and other tasks are organised and performed at local and regional levels. The Swedish Association of Local Authorities *(Svenska Kommunförbundet)* and the Federation of Swedish County Councils *(Landstingsförbundet)* act as central employer organisations, representing all the local authorities and county councils in Sweden.

The Local Government Act which came into force in 1992 stipulates that the local authorities and county councils run their affairs on the basis of local self-government, without intervention on the part of the state. Decision-making powers with regard to municipal operations at local and county level rest with the directly-elected assemblies.

1.1.7.
One of the cornerstones of local self-government is the right to levy taxes in order to finance undertakings. Local decision-making power is not, however, unrestricted. Parliament has passed legislation setting an upper ceiling for new taxation. The 1992 Local Government Act contains regulations on the executive committees and other boards of the municipalities and county councils. The new legislation has created a variety of decision making bodies including those for general and vocational education in the municipalities.

Crucial role of municipalities

1.1.8.
Sweden is a unified and to some extent uniform country. The equal distribution of

public services as well as equal rights to education are core concepts of Swedish welfare policy. Stronger market orientation, and increasing decentralisation of political solutions will challenge these ideals. During the 1980s, public administration in Sweden underwent far-reaching decentralisation of responsibilities. The field of education was no exception. In 1991 this change culminated in new legislation giving the cities and municipalities a much stronger position in the development of local school policies and the promotion of various forms of best practice.

1.1.9.
Thus, the municipalities have a vital role to play in the decentralised system in terms of how school policy is put into practice. The municipalities decide on how the school is to be organised and how resources shall be allocated. Furthermore they are responsible for implementing school activities within the framework that parliament *(Riksdagen)* and the government *(regeringen)* have laid down. The municipalities are also responsible for following up and evaluating school activities.

Responsibilities at national level

1.1.10.
A characteristic feature of the Swedish administrative system is the division of tasks between ministries and central administrative agencies. The ministries are rather small units. They are mainly concerned with preparing government bills to be submitted to parliament, issuing laws and regulations and general rules for the administrative agencies. The enforcement of laws and government decisions is entrusted to 100 or so relatively independent administrative agencies *(statliga myndigheter)*.

1.1.11.
Education in Sweden has traditionally been organised within the public sector. Through legislation, regulations and curricula, the state issued detailed instructions and rules for the conduct of educational activities, as well as for the spending of state grants. The education system has, however, undergone fundamental changes towards a goal and result-oriented steering system in recent years.

1.1.12.
Overall responsibility for education in Sweden is borne by parliament and the government. With the exception of the University of Agricultural Sciences, which comes under the Ministry of Agriculture, and employment training (see glossary in Annex 4) which is the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour, all education and vocational training comes under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Science.

1.1.13.
Following these principles the responsibilities for the main types of VET are shared in the following way:
- basic adult education, partly (Ministry of Education and Science)
- supplementary vocational training (Ministry of Education and Science)
- further vocational training (Ministry of Education and Science)

- upper secondary adult education (Ministry of Education and Science)
- trainee training (Ministry of Education and Science)
- employment training and labour market programmes (Ministry of Labour)
- continuing in-company training (employers)
- private courses (employers, corporations, individuals)
- courses organised by trade organisations (trade unions)

1.1.14.
The main central authority for supervision of the school system is the National Agency for Education *(Statens Skolverk* or *Skolverket* for short). Its foremost tasks include responsibility for national follow-up, evaluation and supervision of all school activities, as well as for central development work within the school sector. The Agency is responsible for ensuring that research is undertaken, that head teachers receive basic training, and also arranges some in-company training for teachers. Furthermore the agency is facing new tasks in the future with regard to a broadening of its sector of responsibility to pre-school and child care as well as adult education promotion. The Agency will have a strategic role in the development of evaluation and new quality assurance systems.

1.2. The population

Demographic trends

1.2.1.
Sweden has a population of 8.7 million with about 85 % living in the southern half of the country, especially in the three major urban regions of Stockholm (the capital), Gothenburg and Malmö.

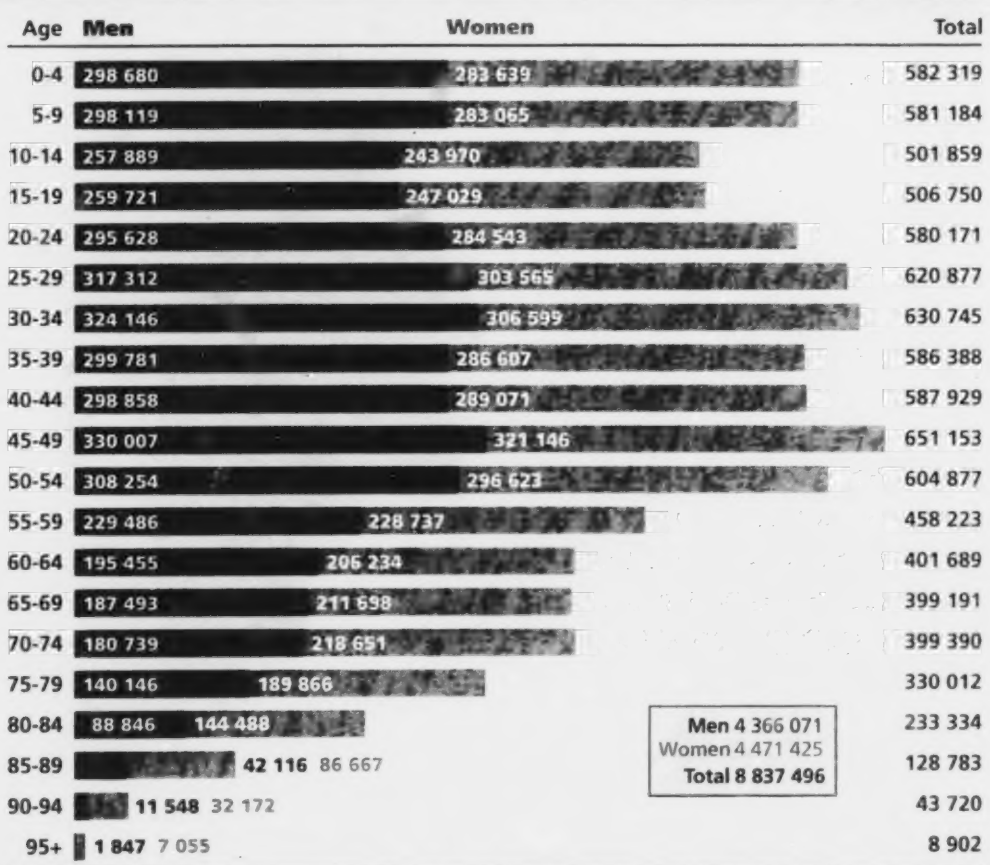
1.2.2.
Sweden covers a total area of 450 000 km^2. The distance between the southern tip of the country, and the northern tip, located above the Arctic Circle, is nearly 1 600 km. The landscape is dominated by forests, lakes and rivers. Cultivated land makes up less than 10 % of the land surface. Although Sweden is in area the third largest country in the European Union, it is also one of the most sparsely populated.

1.2.3.
The national language is Swedish, a Germanic language. For centuries, Sweden was ethnically and linguistically very homogeneous with two exceptions – the Finnish-speaking population of the north-east and the Saami (or Lapps). Sápmi – Saamiland is a region which crosses the borders of four nations. Sápmi is populated by approximately 85 000 Saami of whom 20 000 live in Sweden. The name Sápmi can be interpreted as Saami, the people, or Saamiland. Today, approximately one million of Sweden's total population are immigrants or have at least one immigrant parent (see paragraph 1.2.7). This new multicultural context has major repercussions on the need for education, since the majority of non-European immigrants are refugees, who arrived in the last decade.

1.2.4.

The age pyramid in Sweden shows a similar pattern to most industrialised countries with a growing share of older citizens. From 1990 to 1995 the population increased from 8 591 000 to 8 837 000 persons. The increase during the first years of the decade was annually around 50 000 due to rather extensive immigration. In the last 25 years, this increase in population has only been exceeded in two years: 1989 (68 000) and 1990 (64 000). From 1994 to 1995 the increase was only 21 000.

Figure 1. **Population by gender and age, 31 December 1995**



SOURCE **STATISTICS SWEDEN 1997. STATISTICAL YEARBOOK OF SWEDEN.**

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1.2.5.
According to Statistics Sweden's (*Statistiska Centralbyrån, SCB*) population forecast, from 1995 the population will grow by 1.75 % until 2000. This corresponds to an increase of 155 000. The Swedish population would thus, in terms of this forecast, exceed 9 million by the turn of the century. By 2025 (assuming that women give birth to an average of 1.9 children and that mortality will decline slightly during the period 1995-2025), the population will amount to 710 000 more persons than in 1994 and will reach a total of 9 569 000 persons.

1.2.6.
As in many other countries, the proportion of citizens over 65 years of age will increase in the next two decades. The distribution of population by different age groups is of great importance. This has an effect on the balance between those who work and those who need to be supported by social security. At the same time it will have an effect on the number of places that will be needed in schools and the scope of care for the elderly.

Table 1. **Percentage of the population aged 65 or over (men, women and total)**

Year	Men	Women	Total	Year	Men	Women	Total
1960	10.8	12.8	11.8	**2015**	18.1	21.8	20.0
1970	12.3	15.3	13.8	**2020**	18.9	22.5	20.7
1980	14.3	18.4	16.4	**2025**	19.4	23.0	21.2
1990	15.3	20.2	17.8	**2030**	20.1	23.8	21.9
1993	14.9	19.8	17.4	**2035**	20.5	24.3	22.4
1995	14.9	19.8	17.4	**2040**	20.5	24.3	22.4
2000	14.6	19.3	17.0	**2045**	19.9	23.7	21.8
2005	14.8	19.1	17.0	**2050**	19.4	23.1	21.3
2010	16.4	20.3	18.4				

SOURCE: ***MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE, CVT-94***

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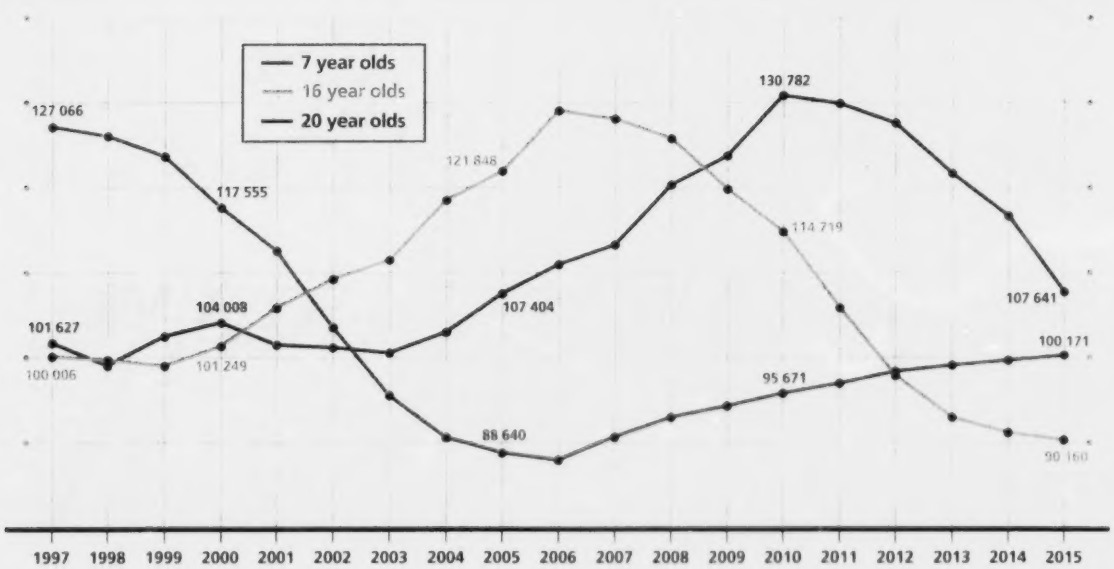
By 2015, average life expectancy is estimated to be 77.9 years for men and 82.3 for women. This is comparable to the 1992 level of 75.4 years for men and 80.8 years for women and means that the difference in average life expectancy between men and women will decline. The forecast also shows that the age group of 7-15 year olds will increase most by 2000, whilst those over 65 years will increase most during the period 2000–15. Educational planning and manpower predictions will thus have to consider major fluctuations in age cohorts for the coming two decades (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Development of age cohorts 1997-2015



SOURCE: **STATISTICS SWEDEN 1998.**

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Migration

1.2.7.
Immigration is increasing again, especially from countries within Europe, the exception being the Nordic countries. As late as the 1920s, Sweden was a country with high levels of emigration. Thereafter the number of immigrants has exceeded the number of emigrants. The pattern of immigration has varied greatly from year to year. In the 1960s and at the beginning of the 1970s, labour force immigration to Sweden was extensive. Immigration from Finland increased significantly in the 1960s and reached a peak in 1970, when people from Finland accounted for half of all immigrants. Since then immigration from Finland has declined considerably.

1.2.8.
In the 1980s, immigration consisted mainly of refugees and family members of immigrants already living in Sweden. Nordic citizens were only a small part of the total number of immigrants. The number of immigrants from outside Europe increased greatly. In the 1990s, immigration has been characterised by major variations. In 1993 immigration increased by 17 000 persons compared with 1992. The war in the former Yugoslavia is the main reason for the increase in immigration in 1993 and 1994. The changes in the structure of the Swedish population are illustrated below.

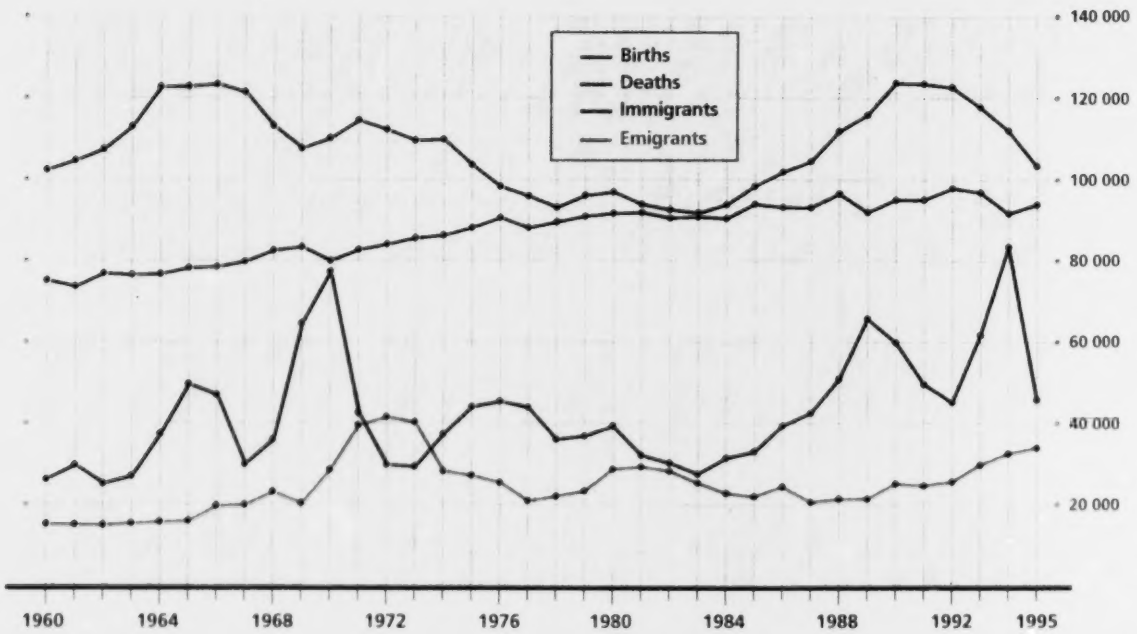
Table 2. **Immigrants, by country of birth, 1993**

Country of origin	Number of persons
Finland*	209 512
Yugoslavia**	51 712
Iran	48 063
Norway	47 111
Denmark	41 141
Poland	38 502
Germany	36 663
Turkey	28 450
Chile	27 697
Iraq	20 188
Bosnia and Herzegovina	17 774
Hungary	14 976

* many with Swedish as mother tongue.
** present-day Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro).

SOURCE: *SWEDISH INSTITUTE 1994, FACT SHEETS ON SWEDEN.*

Figure 3. **Birth rate, mortality, emigration and immigration, 1960 - 95**



SOURCE **STATISTICS SWEDEN 1997. STATISTICAL YEARBOOK OF SWEDEN.**

Educational attainment

1.2.9.

In comparative terms, Sweden has a relatively high level of educational attainment. Seven out of ten Swedes have completed upper secondary or higher education. There are great differences in the level of education between different OECD countries and Sweden has a high position. However, the USA, Germany, Switzerland, Norway and Canada have a larger proportion of the population (24-64 years) with upper secondary or higher education (see Figure 4). In 1992, 79 % of the population in Norway and 70 % of the population in Sweden had upper secondary or higher education. The average OECD figure was 45 %. Norway and Sweden had the highest proportion of the population with higher education in Europe.

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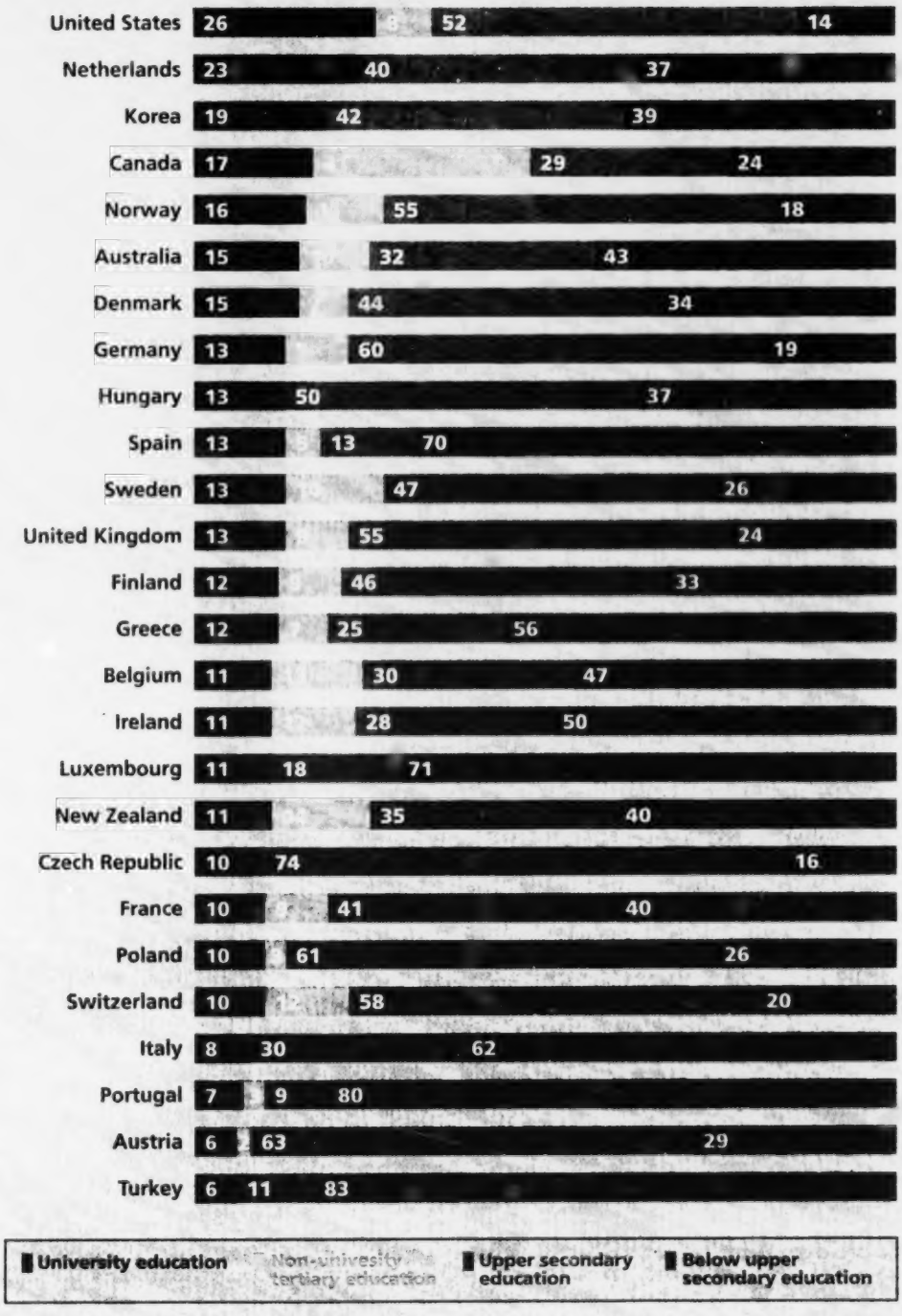
Figure 4. **Proportion of the population 25 to 64 years of age by level of educational attainment 1996**


United States 26 8 52 14
Netherlands 23 40 37
Korea 19 42 39
Canada 17 29 24
Norway 16 55 18
Australia 15 32 43
Denmark 15 44 34
Germany 13 60 19
Hungary 13 50 37
Spain 13 13 70
Sweden 13 47 26
United Kingdom 13 55 24
Finland 12 46 33
Greece 12 25 56
Belgium 11 30 47
Ireland 11 28 50
Luxembourg 11 18 71
New Zealand 11 35 40
Czech Republic 10 74 16
France 10 41 40
Poland 10 61 26
Switzerland 10 58 20
Italy 8 30 62
Portugal 7 9 80
Austria 6 63 29
Turkey 6 11 83
University education
Non-university tertiary education
Upper secondary education
Below upper secondary education

SOURCE: *OECD EDUCATION AT A GLANCE 1998.*

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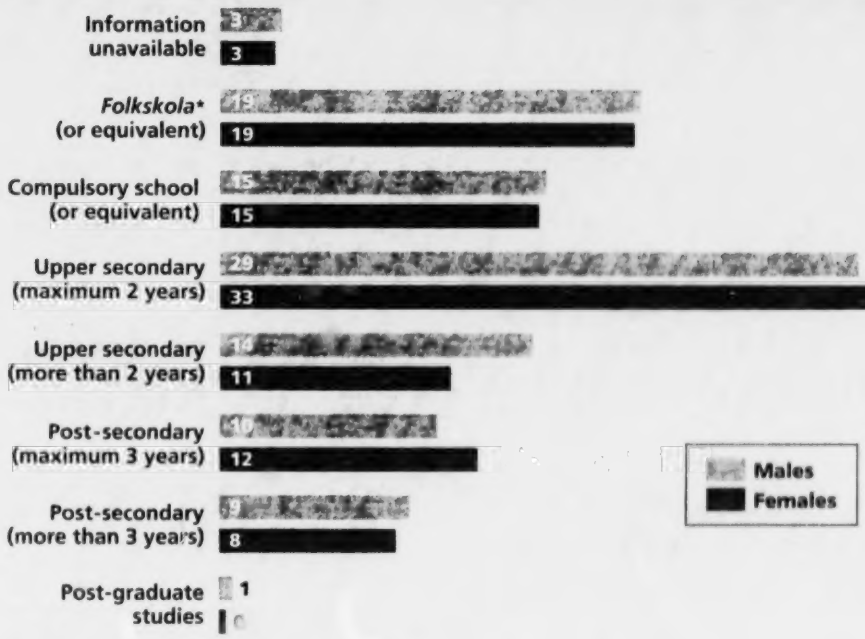
1.2.10.
Looking at the Swedish labour force, there are still around 25 % who have not acquired an education of more than eight or nine years of compulsory schooling. For demographic reasons low education standards are often combined with age.

Figure 5. **Educational attainment in Sweden as % of those aged 16-74, January 1994**



** Folkskola* is the former 6, 7 or 8 years compulsory school. *Folkskola* has now been replaced by the 9 year *grundskola*.*

SOURCE: ***STATISTICS SWEDEN 1995. YEARBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS***

1.2.11.
Well-educated employees of high competence are a prerequisite for adaptation and renewal. People with poor basic knowledge run a higher risk of being out of work when the demand for competence increases. Every fourth Swede aged 16-64 has received only an education up to compulsory school level. Among those who still have 10-20 years of their working life left, one third have received no more than an eight or nine year compulsory school education. Looking at differences, men are somewhat less educated than women. Every second employee within industry has a very low educational level. Small and medium-sized companies have in general employees with low educational levels. There are also differences due to regional and industrial structures, as well as the location of institutes of higher education.

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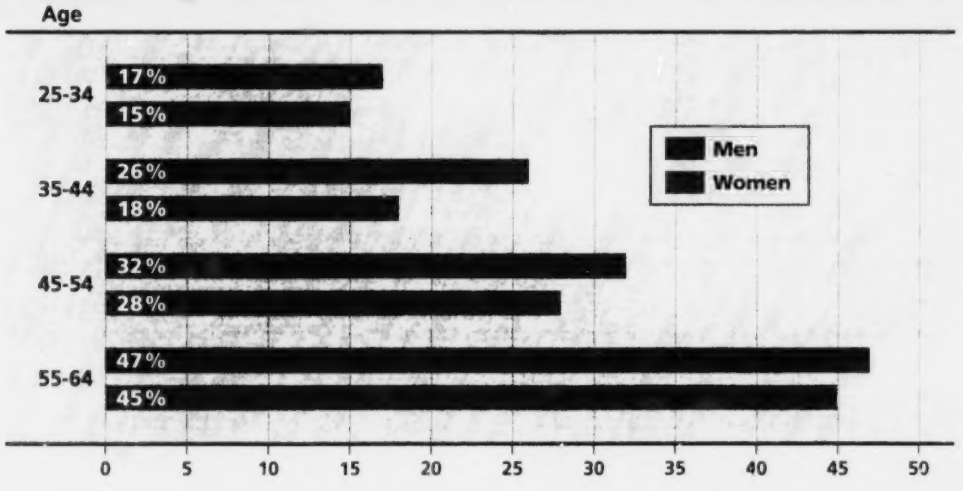
Table 3. **Educational attainment, 1 January 1997, % of population aged 25-64**

	Women	Men
Less than upper secondary	25	29
Upper secondary maximum 2 years	36	32
Upper secondary > 2 years	11	14
Post-secondary < 3 years	16	13
Post-secondary 3 years or more	12	13

SOURCE: *STATISTICS SWEDEN 1997. UTBILDNINGSREGISTRET.*

The share of the population with no more than eight or nine years of compulsory schooling is illustrated in the figure below. The figure shows that men in all age cohorts have a lower level of educational attainment than women. It is particularly evident in mid-life years. One possible explanation is that men more often give priority to gainful employment and learn at work, while women have to demonstrate that they have higher educational qualifications in order to compete and make progress on the labour market.

Figure 6. **Share of population with no more than eight or nine years of schooling, men and women of various ages, 1995**



SOURCE: *STATISTICS SWEDEN, UTBILDNINGSREGISTRET, 1995.*

1.2.12.

It is interesting to see the shifting levels of educational participation in different age cohorts. The figure below indicates that there still is a significant generation gap in lifelong learning with respect to formal education (i. e. qualifications obtained within the school system). However, when looking at the role of in-company training and popular adult education (see glossary in Annex 4), the picture is not at all so negative. More than one out of three employees participates in in-company training and one out of four in study circles or other forms of popular adult education.

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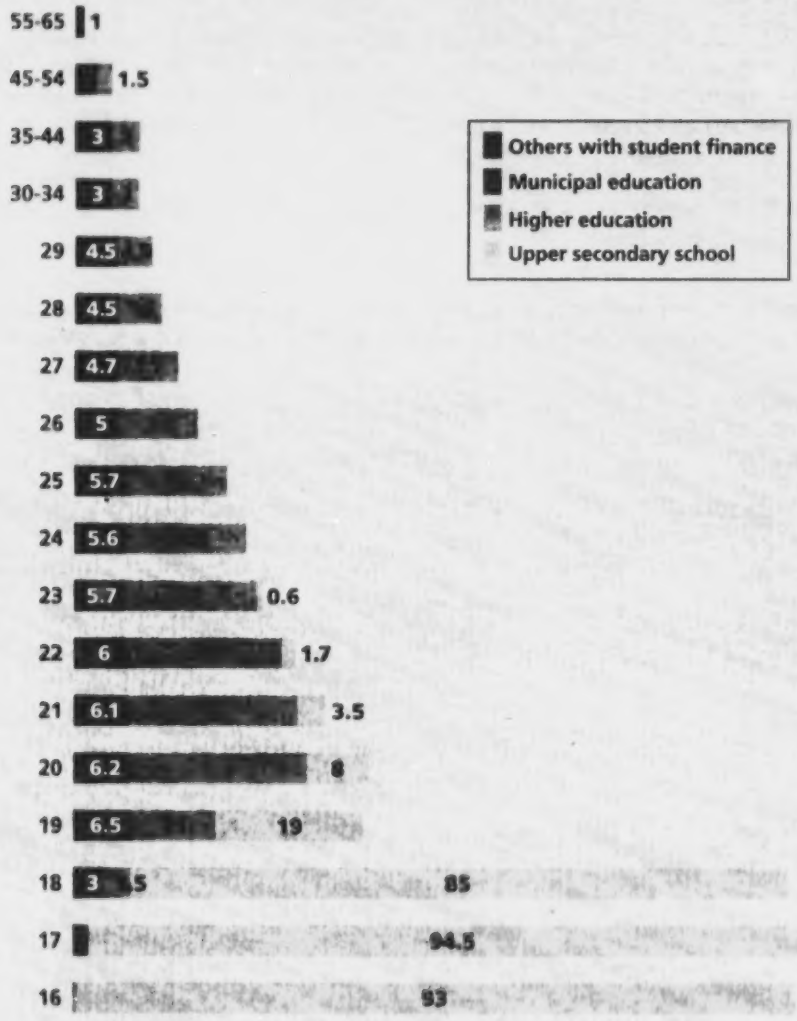
Figure 7. **Share of the population participating in formal education at various levels 1994**



SOURCE STATISTICS SWEDEN, 1996. BAKGRUNDSMATERIAL OM BEFOLKNINGENS UTBILDNING 1996.

1.2.13.
The varying education levels of immigrants is an interesting aspect of the competence of the labour force since immigrants belong to the extremes by being represented among individuals with the highest and also the lowest levels of education. Political refugees from some eastern European countries e.g. Russia and Poland tend to be better educated than Swedes in general, while immigrants from Africa, the Middle East or some Asian countries have relatively low levels of education.

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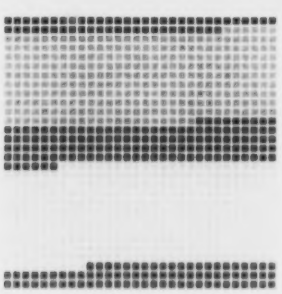
1.3. Economy and labour force

Production and employment

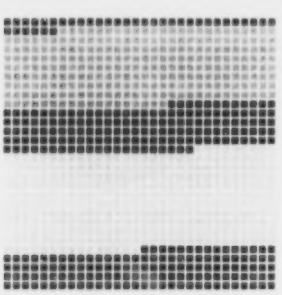
1.3.1.
The distribution of gross domestic product by activity in Sweden between 1970 and 1993 is depicted in the figure below. As in other industrialised countries, the service sector's contribution to GDP has increased significantly whereas the importance of manufacturing has declined. While manufacturing contracted from 33 to below 22 % of GDP, services expanded from 46 to 62 % over the period. Within private services, the most important change was the expansion of the financial sector from 14 to 24 %. Public sector growth was largely due to increases in education, health care, and other services.

Figure 8. **Gross domestic product by sector 1970-93**



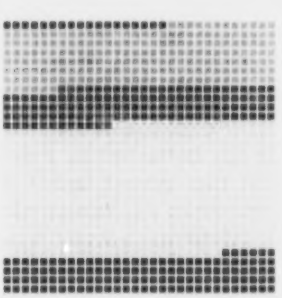
Agriculture and mining	6 %
Manufacturing	33 %
Energy and construction	15 %
Private services	37 %
Public services	9 %

1970



Agriculture and mining	4 %
Manufacturing	28 %
Energy and construction	17 %
Private services	36 %
Public services	15 %

1980



Agriculture and mining	2 %
Manufacturing	22 %
Energy and construction	14 %
Private services	48 %
Public services	14 %

1993

SOURCE: MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE 1995, ECONOMIC RESTRUCTURING AND INDUSTRIAL POLICY IN SWEDEN.

1.3.2.

Between 1970 and 1995, total employment grew from 3.9 to 4.5 million. The increase took place primarily in the public sector, and was largely attributable to a higher participation rate among women. As shown below, the public sector's share of total employment increased by almost 10 percentage points during the 1970s and amounted to 27.7 % in 1995. Manufacturing's share of total employment dropped from 26 to 20 % and services increased from 55 to 70 %.

Table 4. **Employment by sector, % of total employment, 1970-95**

Sector	1970	1980	1990	1995
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	7.6	5.2	3.5	3.3
Mining and manufacturing	28.6	24.8	21.0	20.1
Electricity, gas heating and water works	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.9
Construction	9.9	8.1	7.7	6.1
Private services	34.5	34.1	39.0	41.9
Government agencies	18.5	26.8	27.9	27.7

SOURCE: *SWEDISH INSTITUTE 1997. FACT SHEETS ON SWEDEN.*

At the same time, there has been an increase in service activities within the manufacturing sector itself. The table below shows that the share of workers in manufacturing actively engaged in services increased from 27 % in 1970 to 33 % in 1991 on average. The highest level was achieved in chemicals and engineering. In knowledge-intensive production, the borderlines between manufacturing and services are becoming increasingly blurred.

Figure 9. **Share of services in total employment in manufacturing, by industrial sub-sectors in % and % change, 1970-91**

	Share of services in %				Change in %
INDUSTRY	1970	1982	1989	1991	1970-91
Food, drink and tobacco	25	26	26	26	4
Textiles, apparel and leather	18	19	21	18	0
Wood products	16	20	19	20	25
Pulp and paper	28	32	32	33	18
Chemicals, incl. pharmaceuticals	34	38	39	40	18
Minerals, concrete, etc.	23	27	26	26	13
Iron and steel	25	26	24	25	0
Engineering	30	33	32	37	23
Other manufacturing	23	28	29	32	39
Total manufacturing	27	30	30	33	22

SOURCE: *MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE 1995, ECONOMIC RESTRUCTURING AND INDUSTRIAL POLICY IN SWEDEN.*

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Rise of unemployment

1.3.3.

Until the early 1990s, there was a gradual reorientation towards the public sector, and an ongoing decline in manufacturing. Since then, a reversal of these trends has been initiated and may continue in the years ahead, as revival of industry – manufacturing as well as private services – is now a generally accepted policy objective in Sweden. The labour market functioned without too many problems until the beginning of the 1990s. Unemployment was very low in international terms, and the ideal of full employment was successfully implemented. In 1990, total employment started to fall. Between 1990 and 1993, about half a million jobs were lost. Manufacturing suffered most; employment in manufacturing dropped by some 190 000 employees and more than half of these job losses took place in engineering. Construction contracted by about 60 000 workers and almost 120 000 jobs disappeared in private services. Employment in public services was maintained in 1990 but started to fall in 1991, declining by 120 000 between 1990 and 1993 as a whole.

Figure 10. **Unemployment, 16-64 years of age, 1976-96**

Year	Men	Women	Total
1976	28 900	35 800	64 700
1977	35 100	39 700	74 800
1978	48 600	45 200	93 800
1979	43 800	44 400	88 200
1980	39 800	44 600	84 400
1981	55 100	52 500	107 600
1982	69 500	67 700	137 200
1983	78 600	72 400	151 000
1984	68 900	66 900	135 800
1985	64 800	59 600	124 400
1986	60 500	56 200	116 700
1987	48 400	45 200	93 600
1988	39 800	37 300	77 100
1989	33 800	32 700	66 500
1990	39 600	35 600	75 200
1991	78 200	56 000	134 200
1992	144 500	88 700	233 200
1993	218 500	137 500	356 000
1994	202 100	137 900	340 000
1995	190 400	142 400	332 800
1996	192 100	155 000	347 100

SOURCE **STATISTICS SWEDEN 1997. AKU.**

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1.3.4.
Unemployment rose to over 8 %, or more than 12 % if adults participating in labour market activities are included. There have been many efforts to explain what happened to the Swedish economy and the labour market. Due to increasing international competition in the global economy, Swedish products had to fight harder on the international market. The decline of the industrial sector also had an impact on those parts of the economy more dependent on domestic demand and supply. The low level of demand in the retail sector and transport field led to increasing unemployment in these sectors. The sector suffering most, however, was the building industry with cuts of more than 30 % in the number of employees. Unemployment crises influenced the public sector to a lesser extent and their effects were also temporarily limited due to a number of labour market measures.

1.3.5.
From 1994 onwards, it is possible to observe a positive development in the economy with high profits occurring in the industrial sector. It is interesting to note that high productivity increases during the early 1990s took place in a context where there was a significant decline in employees and possibly a more intensive use of new technology in combination with a more efficient work organisation. So far, this development has had a marginal impact on job-creation or unemployment.

1.3.6.
Viewed comparatively, Swedish unemployment levels did not, even in 1993, reach the European average of more than 10 % (Table 5). More current figures show that some countries, e.g. Denmark and the Netherlands, have been successful in reducing unemployment, while the Swedish figure has been quite stable.

1.3.7.
In Sweden a larger part of the population is gainfully employed in comparison with many other countries. Sweden used to have the highest frequency of gainfully employed women in the world, but has now been replaced by Denmark. In other words, Sweden has less potential surplus manpower than other countries. This underlines the importance of raising the extent to which people's competence is utilised.

Table 5. **Unemployment in the EU in 1997, in %**

	All age groups			Aged under 25		
	Total	**Men**	**Women**	**Total**	**Men**	**Women**
EU-15	10.6	9.3	12.4	21.0	19.5	22.9
B	9.2	7.2	11.9	23.0	19.0	27.8
D	9.7	9.0	10.6	10.3	11.1	9.5
DK	6.1	4.7	7.8	8.2	6.7	9.9
GR	9.6	6.2	14.9	31.0	22.1	40.6
E	20.8	16.0	28.3	38.8	32.9	46.0
F	12.4	10.7	14.4	29.1	26.5	31.9
IRL	10.2	10.1	10.4	16.0	16.5	15.3
I	12.1	9.3	16.6	33.1	28.5	38.9
L	3.7	2.7	5.2	9.9	10.9	8.8
NL	5.2	3.9	6.9	9.2	8.1	10.4
A	4.4	3.6	5.3	6.7	5.6	7.8
P	6.8	6.0	7.8	15.4	12.0	19.7
FIN	14.0	13.2	14.9	27.5	25.5	29.6
S	**10.2**	**10.6**	**9.7**	**20.9**	**21.5**	**20.4**
UK	7.1	7.9	6.0	14.2	15.9	12.2

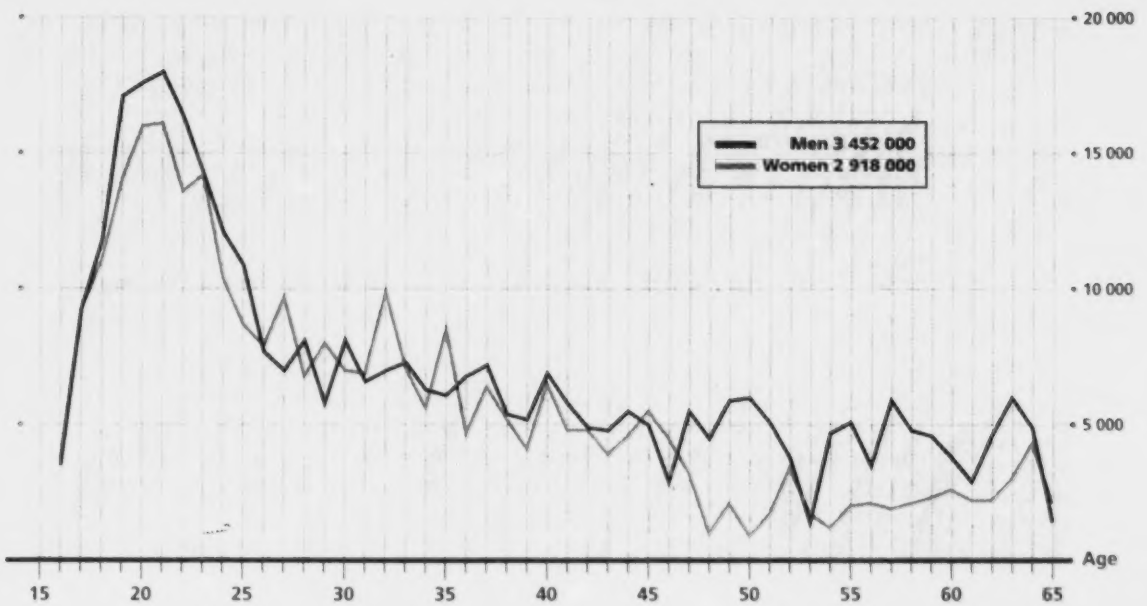
SOURCE: ***EUROSTAT UNEMPLOYMENT MONTHLY 3/98.***

1.3.8.
The average age of the population and of the labour force is higher than in many other countries. The number of young persons leaving education and entering the labour market will soon be decreasing. The proportion of young persons starting work immediately after upper secondary education has been declining over time. The proportion declined from 70 % in 1987 to 24 % in 1993 with a slight increase in 1994 (32 % for women and 25 % for men). It has become increasingly common to continue studying for a number of reasons, particularly to avoid unemployment.

Youth unemployment a major problem

1.3.9.
In spite of a number of policy measures to broaden access to education for young people, youth unemployment is still a major problem on the Swedish labour market. An assessment done by Statistics Sweden showed that young people, especially those in their early 20s, suffered most from the unemployment boom. Figure 11 illustrates the need in 1995 for new jobs and employment options if the re-establishment of the 1990 employment level was taken as the base line objective.

Figure 11. **Number of additional employment options needed in 1995 to return to the 1990 situation**



SOURCE: *STATISTICS SWEDEN 1996. NU OCH DÅ.*

Thus, bridging the gap between education and work is today a much more complicated endeavour than in a low unemployment context. There are fewer direct bridges from education to work. Employment contracts are increasingly of a temporary character and the individual's occupational career is often preceded by a mixture of work study schemes, short job contracts, unemployment and further studies. In practice, this means that the school to work transition period is extended, often in combination with a delayed date for leaving the parent's home and becoming an independent citizen.

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Unemployment and new skill profiles

1.3.10.
Changes in technology and the organisation of work mean that the demand for basic skills combined with the ability both to learn and use new knowledge is increasing in more and more areas. At the same time the proportion of working youngsters is declining, which means that production will be supplied by fewer new entrants to the labour force. This serves to underline the importance of improving the qualifications of workers and means that employers are more interested in providing additional training for their employees. Recent statistics from the Swedish Labour Market Board serve to emphasise this (see Table 6, opposite).

1.3.11.
In spite of a full employment policy deeply rooted in the Swedish model, unemployment levels rose significantly in the early 1990s. A contributory factor to these dramatic changes has been the emergence of a new labour market requiring new skills and higher educational qualifications. During the last decade, there has been a significant increase in employers' expectations of skills and high level training. Nowadays more than nine out of every ten new jobs have specific educational requirements compared with one in every two jobs ten years ago. In order to qualify for employment, occupational experience plus vocational education and social skills are increasingly required.

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Table 6. **Labour force, employment by sector, and unemployment ***

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Labour force participation, as % of working-age population (16-64 years of age)							
Total	**84.8**	**83.9**	**82.0**	**79.1**	**77.6**	**78.2**	**77.8**
Men	87.0	86.0	84.0	80.9	79.4	80.3	80.0
Women	82.6	81.7	79.9	77.2	75.7	76.1	75.6
Employment, as % of working age population	**83.3**	**81.2**	**77.2**	**72.6**	**71.4**	**72.2**	**71.6**
Percentage employed in							
private services	35.8	36.1	37.0	37.3	37.7	37.9	38.2
public services	31.7	32.4	33.2	33.9	33.7	33.2	32.8
manufacturing and mining	22.2	21.2	20.2	19.5	19.4	20.1	20.4
construction	7.0	7.1	6.4	5.9	5.6	5.8	5.7
agriculture and forestry	3.3	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.1	2.9
Unemployment, as % of labour force							
Total	1.5	2.7	4.8	8.2	8.0	7.7	8.1
Men	1.5	3.0	5.7	9.7	9.1	8.4	8.5
Women	1.1	2.3	3.8	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.5
Aged 16-19	4.5	6.7	10.3	19.2	16.5	14.0	15.3
Aged 20-24	3.0	5.8	10.9	18.1	16.7	15.7	17.1
Aged 25-54	1.1	2.1	4.0	7.1	6.9	6.6	6.7
Aged 55-64	1.4	2.0	3.0	5.5	6.5	7.4	6.5
Long-term unemployed (more than six months), as % of all unemployed	**16**	**18**	**26**	**32**	**38**	**35**	**38**
Employed in labour market programmes, as % of labour force	**1.2**	**2.0**	**3.7**	**4.3**	**5.2**	**4.6**	**4.7**

* Because new measuring methods were introduced in 1993, figures for different years are not strictly comparable.

SOURCE: *SWEDISH INSTITUTE 1997 FACT SHEETS ON SWEDEN.*

Chapter II The education system: a brief description

2.1. Historical background

2.1.1.
The development of the Swedish national school system has its roots in various educational and cultural traditions going back to the 13th century. Before the formalisation of civic learning into schools with educational programmes, there were non-formal or even informal teaching and learning traditions. The oral tradition was used in the songs, ballads and myths in the Old Norse culture and also in the early church tradition. The oral tradition was replaced, or maybe expanded, with the reading tradition starting in Sweden in the late 16th century by the introduction of the so-called ABC-booklets based on various church traditions. The growing use of the ABC-booklets was a shift from reciting and learning by heart to learning by reading printed material with a basic religious message, such as the paternoster (Lord's Prayer), the Ten Commandments and other elements of the Roman Catholic Church. The school tradition also has its medieval expressions in monastic and other simpler forms of schooling for children – traditions arriving in Sweden from other European countries during the 13th century. These church-affiliated schools deteriorated after the reformation of the church during the 16th century and the strong taxation implemented by King Gustav Vasa in combination with a decrease provision of education for priests through a reorganisation of the cathedral chapters.

2.1.2.
In the early 17th century a new educational platform was built in Sweden by the foundation of the gymnasium schools in the cathedral cities. In addition to the two universities – Uppsala and Lund – and 11 gymnasium schools, over 20 lower elementary schools were financed through the State budget of 1649. Over 80 schools for children at city or municipal level were organised and financed by the local citizens. The driving force behind this new system was the Lutheran Church in Sweden and the practical and organisational tools were controlled by the chapters providing both elementary schools and gymnasium education for students who would become chaplains and supporting parents in home instruction.

2.1.3.
The official starting point for the public school system in Sweden goes back to June 1842 when the *Folkskola* Act was signed by King Carl Johan XIV. For the first time Swedish children would be required to attend school by law. Every parish had to provide at least one school and employ one teacher trained at a seminary. The decision of the new *Folkskola* Act (1842 *års Folkskolestadga*) was followed by only small amounts of State subsidy and most parishes had difficulties implementing this decision. Thus, the way from idea to reality took several years and a continuous political struggle. The quality of the new elementary schooling was extremely uneven for almost half a century. Almost one third of the pupils got their instruction at home or in so-called travelling schools. The absence of textbooks or a common curriculum led to a continuation of the old system operated by the clergy and thereby the introduction of religious content in the supposedly secular compulsory education. Because of the limited support, the folk schools were sometimes looked upon as charitable schools for poor children from the working class.

2.1.4.
With a risk of oversimplification, the modernisation of education in Sweden can be said to comprise both separation and integration. In its historical background, Swedish education was dominated by the church hegemony and its Christian message. Today, religion is more or less reduced to a subject in the school curriculum, and in the secular public school system the social partners have a stronger influence on educational policies and curriculum formulation than the church. The political idea and process of integration, on the other hand, reflects the formation of the modern school system. Its most evident signs are the efforts to integrate and mingle various educational traditions into one public school system while simultaneously trying to counteract social bias and inequalities. The reform process aiming at a more comprehensive education system has its roots in the late 19th century but increased in speed and scope during the1940s. The major political ambition was to transform school systems, which were based on the gymnasium and academic tradition on the one hand and the folk school tradition on the other, into a unified or comprehensive one. This work started almost one century after the decision on the *Folkskola* Act in 1842.

2.1.5.
The reform implementation process has lasted for more than half a century. It started with a government task force on public schooling in 1940 (1940 *års skolutredning*) and its work was taken over and expanded by a political commission (1946 *års skolkommission*). The commission made a more radical proposal than the governmental task force by suggesting an 8+1 model (6 years common to all pupils with limited space for organisational differentiation during the seventh and eight school years followed by a division into separate programmes during the last year). Local experiments with a new and more integrated school started in the 1950s. A new governmental commission (1957 *års skolberedning*) was given the task of winding up the *realskola* (which functioned as an academic bridge between elementary school and the gymnasium) and to develop a model for a new more integrated system. The government presented a new school bill in 1962 which was based on the final report of the commission named *grundskolan*. The parliament accepted this bill the same year, thereby marking a crossroads in the design of modern education in Sweden. New curricula for compulsory schools were introduced in 1962, 1969 and 1980. (*Lgr 62, Lgr 69* and *Lgr 80; läroplan för grundskolan*).

2.1.6.
The next step in the search for comprehensive organisational models for education was the reform of upper secondary and higher education introduced and implemented during the 1970s and 1980s. The reform of upper secondary education comprised a series of decisions to create a common education culture from three sources; i.e. the gymnasium schools (*gymnasier* or *läroverk*) based on the formal schooling tradition and two forms of vocational schools (*yrkesskolor* and *fackskolor*) reflecting occupational values and expectations of practical skills (see paragraph 3.1.10).

2.1.7.
The reform of higher education comprised several measures such as broader admission (the so-called 25:4 scheme recognising work experience as an admission criteria), provision of new short-cycle vocational education as well as the location of higher educational institutions in cities in which there had been none previously. Furthermore, the higher education reform of the 1970s was built on the idea of

organising higher education programmes into working life sectors, an idea which has been more or less abolished in the higher education reforms introduced in the early 1990s. A fourth component in the struggle for access and equity in Swedish education is the diversified provision of adult education opportunities (see paragraphs 3.1.12 – 3.1.18).

2.2. Some general characteristics

Basic principles

2.2.1.
One fundamental principle of the Swedish education system – as stated in the School Act – is that all children and young persons must have access to equivalent education, regardless of sex, social and economic background as well as locality of residence. Both compulsory (i.e. primary and lower secondary) schools and upper secondary schools are comprehensive and designed to accommodate the whole age cohort. The curricula for compulsory and upper secondary education have nation-wide validity. Independent or private schools have increased during the early 1990s, due to more liberal regulation and financial support, but do not account for more than 2 % of the pupils, a figure which is low in international terms.

2.2.2.
Adult education in Sweden has a long history and options for further and recurrent education are available in many different forms throughout the country. Education for adults, equivalent to the education conferred by the compulsory and upper secondary school is part of the public school system. Swedish education is thus a structurally uniform system from elementary level through to upper secondary schooling and adult education.

2.2.3.
A guiding principle of education policy implemented by the centre-right government in power between 1991 and 1994, was to create scope for diversity within the education system with freedom for individual pupils and students to choose between different types of schools and institutions of higher education, as well as between study routes. New opportunities have thus been opened up for private school organisers to operate within the system. These options have been somewhat limited by the current Social Democratic government, which started its mandate in the autumn of 1994. The next election takes place in September 1998.

Compulsory education

2.2.4.
Compulsory education in Sweden takes the form of a nine-year comprehensive school (*grundskola*) for children aged 7 to 16. However, since 1991 children have had the right to start school at the age of six years, if their parents desire and if the municipality has sufficient capacity. This option was available in all municipalities by the school year 1997/98.

The new curriculum (*Lpo94, 1994 års läroplan för det obligatoriska skolväsendet*) for compulsory education, introduced in July 1995, sets out the goals and general

principles for compulsory schooling. The goals relating to subject content and national curriculum are of two kinds: (a) goals to aim for (*strävansmål*) and (b) goals to be attained (*uppnåendemål*). The goals to aim for indicate the direction of the school's work and thus the development of the standards desired. The goals to be attained are an expression of the minimum pupil attainment required on leaving school. In the new system it is the responsibility of the school and the local school authorities to ensure that pupils are given opportunities to attain these goals.

2.2.5.
The new curriculum is connected with a timetable, adopted by the parliament, that guarantees each pupil a total number of 6 665 teaching hours during nine years schooling. Of this time, around 13 % is set aside for options decided upon by the pupil or by the school. It is up to the local school to organise its contacts with local working life and to create a learning dialogue with people from outside the school.

2.2.6.
The numbers of pupils in compulsory school (*grundskolan*) are broadly equivalent in size to comparable age cohorts. In the school year 1995/96 there were 938 700 students (aged between 7 and 16) in compulsory school. Up to and including the school year 2001/02, the number of students is expected to increase to 1.1 million. The size of the increase is, however, related to the proportion of six-year-old children in school and the level of immigration.

2.2.7.
New routes for adult students were created during the early 1970s. In addition to broad provision of second chance opportunities through popular adult education (see glossary in Annex 4), municipal education (see paragraphs 3.1.12 – 3.1.13) and employment training (see paragraphs 3.1.15 – 3.1.16) a law on educational leave of absence and a study assistance system supplemented the reform. The School Act of 1985, subsequently revised in 1991, guarantees all adults the right to basic adult education corresponding to nine years of formal schooling. From 1 July 1997 this guarantee has been extended to core subjects at upper secondary level (*kunskapslyftet*).

Schools for special groups

2.2.8.
The Saami school (*sameskolan*) covers years 1-6 in the compulsory school. In the school year 1995/96, there were 130 pupils in the Saami school. During the 1990s the number of students has varied between 133 (1990) and 111 (1993). In addition to these students, there were around one hundred students attending municipal compulsory schools who receive a Saamic education.

2.2.9.
Increasing numbers of students attend the special school for the mentally handicapped (*särskolan*). In the school year 1995/96, 13 400 students attended these schools. The number of students in the compulsory special school has increased by 14 % over the last five years, which can be compared with an increase of 4 % in the compulsory school over the same period. The special school for the mentally handicapped has also increased more than the upper secondary school in percentage terms. Responsibility for organising special schools has gradually been

transferred from the county councils to the municipalities. Three per cent of all students in special schools attend independent special schools.

2.2.10.
Only a very small group of students with serious visual, hearing and speech impairments are taught in the eight special schools run by the State. The number of students in these special schools has increased during the 1990s from 680 to 770. The majority of children with various handicaps, nearly 6 000 in total, receive their education within the framework of the ordinary compulsory school, with the help of special resources.

2.2.11.
Swedish education abroad is provided in different forms and supported by the State. The most frequent form is Swedish schools abroad. In the autumn of 1995, there were around 1 100 students of compulsory school age and 150 students in upper secondary schools abroad. There were in total 33 Swedish schools abroad located in 26 countries in Europe, Africa, Asia and America.

Post-compulsory education

2.2.12.
Post-compulsory education comprises upper secondary education, municipal adult education (see glossary in Annex 4) and higher education. The number of students in the upper secondary school has increased since 1990, despite a reduction in the numbers in the 16-18 age group. In total there were 310 000 students in upper secondary education in autumn 1996. The increase is largely a result of the introduction of the individual programme in the upper secondary school.

Young persons, who earlier were in so-called municipal follow-up programmes for low achieving pupils, are now in the upper secondary school. One of the reasons for the total increase is that three year programmes have gradually been replacing the earlier shorter course 'lines' and special courses. During the academic year 1996/97 there were 641 upper secondary schools in Sweden run by the following organisations:
- municipalities 67 %
- counties 20 %
- independent bodies approximately 12 %.

Adult education in the public school system

2.2.13.
Sweden has a diversified provision of adult education, which includes sectors with a strong working life orientation and thereby forms part of continuing vocational training. The number of students in municipal adult education (see glossary in Annex 4 for definition) has varied, but the total increased during the 1990s and exceeded 195 000 in the 1994/95 school year. A large number of places in municipal adult education have been financed by the State over the last couple of years through labour market measures against unemployment. In the school year 1993/94, over 30 000 students attended adult education at upper secondary level and supplementary education financed by the State to combat unemployment. This

accounted for one sixth of all students in municipal adult education. In the same year, the grant financed approximately one fifth of the total cost of municipal adult education.

2.2.14.
Similarly to special schools (see paragraph 2.2.9) responsibility for adult education for the intellectually handicapped has gradually been transferred from the county council to the municipality. This type of school, established in 1988, has since then had an increase in the number of its students from 600 to around 3 600 by autumn 1995.

Swedish language instruction for immigrants

2.2.15.
The municipalities are obliged to provide basic Swedish language instruction for adult immigrants. Previously, the Swedish for immigrants (SFI) programme usually comprised a total of 525 hours. In recent years, however, the government has introduced a more flexible system adapted to the needs of the learner. Thus, in many cases the provision of teaching hours is lower, while extra teaching resources are directed towards weak language learners with a low level of education. In October 1996 the SFI programme had 25 240 students, an increase of almost 80 % compared with the previous year. The great majority of these students were refugees originating from former Yugoslavia. Other major ethnic groups were Arabs, Albanians, Iranians, Kurds and people from east Asia.

National schools for adults and distance education

2.2.16.
As a supplement to municipal adult education there are two national level schools for adults. Instruction in these schools is partly by distance learning and the use of new learning technology. Participants are recruited from all over the country and the schools cater primarily for students who for various reasons are unable to attend ordinary courses. These schools are run by the State. Formal education is widely distributed over the country and distance education has been regarded as a supplementary form of distribution and not as a special system.

2.2.17.
The national schools for adults (*statens skolor för vuxna, SSV*) in Härnösand and Norrköping provide distance education or modular courses to complement municipal adult education. These are national programmes where the State acts as the principal organiser. Upper secondary education is the dominant form, as in municipal adult education. The total number of students in SSV was 12 500 in the school year 1994/95.

2.2.18.
The introduction of new information technology, more flexible hours at work and the need for educational upgrading of the work force has influenced the government to launch a nation-wide development programme to promote new forms of distance education in the early 1990s. Furthermore, mention should be made of the important role played by the Swedish Educational Broadcasting

Corporation (*Utbildningsradion*), which over a period of more than two decades has produced both credit and non-credit courses.

Definition of initial and continuing vocational training

2.2.19.
Description of the Swedish system for vocational training is a complicated task since there is no natural distinction between vocational training and general education. Hence, there are no separate schools for vocational training within the school system. A basic objective in the Swedish education system is to narrow the gap between vocational and general education as much as possible. A result of this is a comprehensive school system which does not separate pupils attending different programmes before upper secondary level. Even at upper secondary level pupils are obliged to study a common core of subjects.

2.2.20.
Despite the fact that there are seldom clear-cut borders between various parts of the education system, the distinction between initial vocational training (IVT) and continuing vocational training (CVT), used in Sweden is presented below:

- vocationally oriented programmes at upper secondary level (initial vocational training)
- labour market training (continuing vocational training)
- vocational training within the framework of municipal adult education (continuing vocational training)
- in-company training or staff training (continuing vocational training)
- professional degrees at university level (continuing vocational training).

2.3. Legislation, resource allocation and implementation of education and training policies

Central level

2.3.1.
In practice, the decentralised model of education comprised a fundamental reorganisation of central agencies. On 1 July 1991 the National Board of Education (*Skolöverstyrelsen*) and the county education boards (*länsskolnämnderna*) were closed down. Two new authorities were established, namely the National Agency for Education (*Statens skolverk*) and the Swedish Agency for Special Education (*Statens institut för handikappfrågor i skolan, SIH*).

2.3.2.
The main tasks of the National Agency for Education are, *inter alia*, to:

- be responsible for the national follow-up and evaluation of school performance;
- ensure that municipalities follow the regulations in the School Act and that the rights of individuals are respected;
- provide a basis for proposals for development of the formal school system;
- draw up syllabuses.

2.3.3.
At the beginning of the 1990s, a series of reorganisations was also carried out within the central administration of higher education in Sweden. The aim was, *inter alia*, to strengthen the autonomy of the universities, improve the quality of education and develop a more efficient administrative service. On 1 July 1995, the National Agency for Higher Education (*Högskoleverket*) was established. Its principal tasks are to:
- follow-up and evaluate education provided at universities and university colleges;
- monitor and supervise higher education;
- be responsible for assessing the quality of education;
- stimulate development and changes within higher education.

In addition, another agency, the National Agency for Procurement and Coordinated Admission to Higher Education (*Verket för högskoleservice*) was established to serve universities and colleges in student admissions and procurement of equipment.

The National Board of Student Aid is responsible for administration, follow-up and evaluation of financial assistance to students in post-compulsory studies both in Sweden and abroad.

2.3.4.
Changes were also initiated in other agencies with responsibility for continuing vocational training. As a result of a parliamentary decision, the former agency responsible for employment training (see glossary in Annex 4) was transformed into the AMU Group AB on 1 July 1993. This company, 100 % owned by the State, has as its principal task the provision of labour market training to the National Labour Market Administration, and other forms of training for companies and administrative agencies.

2.3.5.
The Council for Popular Adult Education (*Folkbildningsrådet*), which consists of the National Swedish Federation of Adult Education Associations (*Folkbildningsförbundet*), the organisation of folk high schools belonging to popular movements (*Rörelseskolornas intresseorganisation*) and the Swedish Federation of County Councils (*Landstingsförbundet*), was established in 1991. The task of the Council is to implement the requirements of the government and parliament that State grants be allocated to those activities organised by the adult education associations and folk high schools. More generally, it should promote equity and quality in popular adult education with respect to citizenship, cultural development and the understanding of science and technology. In addition, the Council for Popular Adult Education should on an ongoing basis follow-up and evaluate activities of the adult education associations and folk high schools. An expanding part of popular education has been courses for the unemployed.

2.3.6.
Thus, the national agencies in education have the task of describing and assessing developments in their respective fields, while decisions on the allocation of financial resources are made by the Ministry of Education and Science. Furthermore, every third year public authorities and governmental agencies are obliged to provide parliament and the government with a comprehensive picture of the situation within their field of responsibility together with input data for the long-term national development of their respective sectors.

2.3.7.
Statistical data on educational activities are collected and published by Statistics Sweden (*Statistiska Centralbyrån, SCB*)

Local level

2.3.8.
The local authorities are required by law and regulations to provide a number of basic services for which they receive grants from the national government. In addition, they have the right to levy income taxes and also charge fees for various services. Practically all education in Sweden below university level comes under the responsibility of the local authorities.

2.3.9.
Each municipal council appoints one or more committees with elected public representatives which have the responsibility for ensuring that educational activities are conducted in compliance with State regulations and guidelines and that the external conditions for education are as appropriate and favourable as possible. The committee or committees responsible for schools are obliged to ensure *inter alia* that schools are built, sufficient facilities provided, the activities of schools in the municipality are coordinated, qualified teachers and staff are hired and receive in-service training, and that municipal funds are allocated to school activities in order to make it possible to achieve the goals laid down in the School Act, the curricula and the syllabuses.

2.3.10.
In practice, it is the responsibility of these committees to ensure that Swedish schools uphold equivalent standards all over the country. Each municipality is required to set out the general objectives for its schools in a school plan (*lokal skolplan*), adopted by the municipal council. The municipality is obliged to follow-up and evaluate the school plan and to provide the State with reports on facts and circumstances of relevance for assessing educational activities. In addition, each school has to devise a work plan (*lokal arbetsplan*) based on the curriculum and local priorities. The work plan is also to be followed up and evaluated.

2.3.11.
Organisational patterns, such as the inclusion of one or more schools under the management of one principal, vary from one municipality to another. In a growing number of municipalities, the politically responsible board provides each school with an overall budget for salaries, teaching materials, etc.

2.3.12.
Teachers' organisations and other employees' organisations are entitled, under the Co-determination Act, to get information on, and opportunities to influence, impending decisions. Pupil determination rights are enshrined in the School Act, but their practical implementation is decided locally. In the compulsory school, it is the headteacher's responsibility to give information and consult pupils and parents on matters of importance to the pupils – this is in practice usually carried out by the teachers. Parents are organised in parents' or parent–teacher associations and are thus able to influence the way the school works.

Local cooperation on vocational education

2.3.13.
Ever since the end of the 1970s, special local bodies have been set up in the municipalities for cooperation between school and working life. During the 1980s, the municipalities were obliged to establish such bodies which brought together representatives from the two sides of the labour market and advised the local school board. It is now no longer mandatory to have such bodies. In 176 (62 %) of the country's 288 municipalities, there are what are known as vocational councils or programme councils. Here, cooperation between the school and local trade and industry is fostered by planning, for example, workplace training. Larger purchases of equipment such as numerically-controlled machine tools are discussed and the school receives advice about courses from professionals working outside the school.

2.3.14.
In 172 municipalities there were at the beginning of 1994 also other kinds of voluntary joint action between school and working life. These include business councils, reference groups and informal networks, foster companies, business seminars and conferences – all of great help when it comes to establishing contacts between school and working life. Within these bodies, it is also possible to monitor the development of, and need for, competences in the local labour market. The local school board can decide to establish courses in adult education suited to the needs of the local labour market.

2.3.15.
The County Labour Market Board makes surveys of the regional needs for different skills. Decisions over what kind of education or training the County Labour Market Board will purchase are based on these surveys. The planning of CVT in the education system is different from that in the employment training system. This reflects the different roles of the two systems.

Inspection

2.3.16.
There is no inspectorate as such in Sweden. However, the change to goal and result-oriented steering of the education system requires the State and local authorities, as well as individual schools and institutions of higher education, to systematically follow-up and evaluate educational activities in the context of established goals and existing conditions. In addition, the National Agency for Education and Swedish Universities carries out national or local follow-up and evaluation as mentioned above.

Financing

2.3.17.
With effect from I January 1993, State grants to municipalities take the form of a general equalisation grant. The State grant provides a supplement to the tax revenues of each municipality and also aims at equalising differences between municipalities. State funding, however, does not determine the organisation of the school: the municipalities are at liberty to deploy grants within education as they

see fit. However, if a municipality seriously disregards its obligations under the School Act or regulations issued on the basis of the Act, the government has the right to intervene. In addition, there are special State grants for research and development, in-service training of school staff and measures for intellectually handicapped pupils.

2.3.18.
The municipalities are obliged to provide financial support to independent compulsory level and upper secondary schools approved by the National Agency for Education. This regulation will, however, be altered as a result of a political initiative from the present government. The new regulation will give more influence to the municipalities with respect to the level of financial support and it will also make it more difficult to start new, and especially small, independent schools.

2.3.19.
All students between 16 and 20 years of age attending upper secondary school receive State study assistance. This also applies to students attending independent schools if their studies come under State supervision. Study assistance at upper secondary level comprises a general study grant representing a continuation of child allowance payable for all students from the age of 16. In addition there is a needs-assessed grant towards the cost of studies and daily travel for students studying away from home.

2.3.20.
Higher education is financed directly by the State. On 1 July 1993, a new resource allocation system for undergraduate education was introduced. Appropriations for universities and university colleges are now based on proposals from the government and distributed as a lump sum based on decisions taken by parliament. Higher education institutions operated by local government (e.g. colleges of health sciences) receive State subsidies. Each county council and municipality is responsible for the remaining costs.

2.3.21.
The post-secondary study assistance scheme applies to undergraduate students at universities, university colleges and certain other establishments, as well as to students aged 20 and over attending upper secondary school and other forms of upper secondary schooling. This study assistance consists of a non-repayable grant plus a larger repayable loan, awarded for both full-time and part-time studies, and is subject to a means test.

Educational expenditure

2.3.22.
The total cost of State, municipal and county council public education activity, inclusive of research and financial support for students, but excluding employment training, amounted in 1995 to more than SEK 122 billion (ECU 14.35 billion). In relation to GNP the total cost of public education has increased somewhat in recent years to about 7.5 % of GNP, but is still below the level that existed at the beginning of the 1980s. The relative increase in costs during the first few years of the 1990s can be attributed to expansion within the area of higher education and the increase in the number of students receiving financial support.

Table 7. **Total educational expenditure in current prices (SEK)**

	1993	1994	1995
Child care education	7 858	8 066	10 307
Comprehensive school	43 246	44 162	46 622
Special school	275	283	354
Compulsory school for mentally handicapped	2 145	2 285	2 532
Upper secondary school	17 879	18 573	19 591
Komvux adult education	2 577	2 918	3 229
Adult education for mentally handicapped	58	61	81
National school for adults	46	46	46
University/university college	23 000	24 600	26 100
Central allowances	898	1 163	1 196
Study allowances	9 663	11 206	11 909
Total	**107 646**	**113 362**	**121 969**

SOURCE: *STATISTICS SWEDEN 1997. STATISTICAL YEARBOOK OF SWEDEN.*

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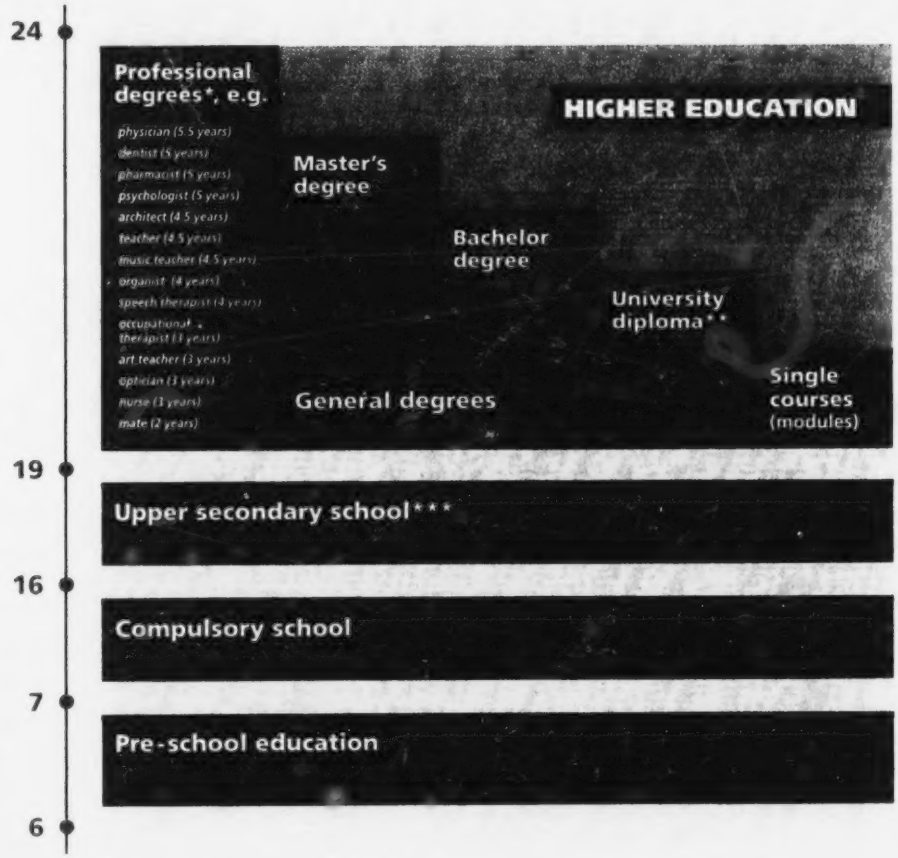
Figure 12. **Structure of the Swedish education system**



* Professional degrees are regulated under Directives 89/48/EEC and 92/51/EEC.

** Vocational programmes, mostly two years to become, for example, a computing or manufacturing technician, a printer, a cook, an economist, an illustrator or an international marketing manager.

*** For list of options, see paragraph 3.2.11.

Note: For a more detailed description of Swedish education, see 'The Swedish education system 1995', the Swedish contribution to the Eurydice database containing descriptions of the education systems in the network's member countries, published by the Swedish Ministry of Education and Science.

SOURCE ***SWEDISH EU PROGRAMME OFFICE.***

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Chapter III The vocational education and training (VET) system

3.1. Historical development of vocational education and training

Industrial development and shifting skill requirements in society

3.1.1.
Development from the 19th century onwards can be divided into different epochs based on employment patterns and qualifications needed by people. Agricultural society dominated up until the early part of the 20th century, but was then gradually replaced by an industrial society undergoing rapid expansion. This new development became the norm until the middle of the 20th century, dominating craft based production in Swedish industry. With the transition from an agricultural to an industrial society, the demand for competence increased. The new work tasks required a higher degree of specialist competence on the part of skilled labourers and technicians. The 'old' competence profile had been acquired as a result of long experience in work. Master craftsmen, journeymen and apprentices were terms connected with that era and the development of competence took place entirely in workshops and enterprises.

3.1.2.
Rapid industrial expansion after the second world war changed the demand for competence quite noticeably. Taylorism and the break-up of work tasks for the assembly line became the basis on which industrial expansion took place. Industry was characterised by mass production and large volumes. The specialist knowledge of craftsmen was no longer needed and industrial workers without any particular vocational skills were often recruited. In this way the demand for competence was considerably reduced in large parts of the industrial sector.

Vocational training before 1950

3.1.3.
Vocational education has a long history. In the pre-industrial society the apprentice system was the traditional way of ensuring practical skills were transferred from one generation to the next. During the 18th century mercantilist ideas on the systematic improvement of labour skills led to the establishment of the first vocational schools or education centres in Sweden. However, these schools were often of short duration. Technical schools were founded in Stockholm and Gothenburg in the early 19th century. They were originally oriented towards vocational education, but later developed into technical schools at the upper secondary level and, ultimately, technical universities.

When the guild system was abolished in 1846, apprenticeship began to lose its dominant position in vocational education. At this time, new industries demanded labour with at least elementary skills. As a consequence, a considerable number of part-time vocational schools (Sunday and evening schools) were founded from the middle of the 19th century onwards.

3.1.4.
Up to the beginning of the 20th century, vocational education depended mainly upon private initiatives. Despite these efforts, technical and commercial education in Sweden lagged behind most other European nations at the beginning of the 20th century. However, in 1918–21 several parliamentary decisions were taken concerning vocational education. They included the first regulation of vocational schools (*yrkesskolestadga*), financial support to vocational schools run by municipal boards and private institutions, and the establishment of workshop schools as well as a training institute for teachers in vocational schools. Vocational education was then supervised by the National Board of Education (*Skolöverstyrelsen*). In contrast to previous periods, the State became engaged in the provision of vocational education.

3.1.5.
The main objective was to establish a widespread system of vocational education, intended mainly for young persons with little or no education over and above primary schooling. In reality vocational education also became a way of reducing youths unemployment, with special courses being arranged for unemployed young persons. These courses, however, had few practical elements. They were dominated by lectures intended to uphold the morale of the unemployed youth, e.g. lectures on civics, trade, hygiene and occupational safety. The Swedish economy went through a severe depression in 1921–22, recording unemployment rates of 25 %. Throughout the 1920s, unemployment never dropped below 10 %. It is not surprising that the number of participants in vocational courses run by local authorities trebled in the 1920s.

3.1.6.
The depression of the 1930s did not hit Sweden as hard as most other countries, but it still caused severe unemployment, particularly among young people. In 1932, promises to combat unemployment helped the Social Democrats win the parliamentary election. As a consequence, more money was allocated to vocational education from 1933 onwards. Simultaneously, courses for the unemployed were expanded. By the end of the 1930s, however, new ideas emerged with respect to the purpose and extent of vocational education.

3.1.7.
A governmental commission on workshop schools (*Verkstadsskoleutredningen*) was appointed in 1937. In the previous year the commission on rationalisation had started its work. The latter commission came to the conclusion that existing vocational education was insufficient and partially obsolete. In particular, it was emphasised that the demands for labour skills were about to shift from manual to more intellectual skills (technical knowledge, intelligence, alertness, etc). To meet these demands, it was considered important that vocational education included general education as well as specific training. The commission on workshop schools agreed and pointed out that the organisation of vocational education needed to be strengthened. As a result, the Board of Vocational Education was established in 1944. Furthermore, central workshops schools were founded, and the capacity of municipal and private trade schools was increased.

The period from 1950 to 1990

3.1.8.
In the aftermath of the Second World War, the entire educational system in Sweden was thoroughly reviewed. The existing system was considered inadequate and obsolete, particularly in its inability to function as a 'vehicle of change'. By providing more and better education, it was hoped that more equal participation in social, political, and cultural affairs would take place. During the 1950s, education was increasingly regarded as a vehicle of economic change. The systematic provision of skills, to young people in particular, would increase the productivity of labour, thus benefiting both individuals and society. This led to a substantial increase during the 1950s and 1960s in the resources allocated to education in general and vocational education in particular.

3.1.9.
The first consequence in vocational education was a shift of emphasis in the types of courses offered. Traditionally, the greater part of vocational education took place in part-time evening courses. These were, in many cases, considered inadequate and ill-adapted to the needs of young people with little or no experience of gainful employment. Therefore, full-time day courses were expanded from 1955 onwards. This shift in emphasis was obviously needed, as the demand for vocational education from young people, and the willingness of local authorities to meet the demand, exceeded all forecasts. The quantitative target for municipal and private trade schools (the dominant form of vocational education at the time) projected for 1970 was reached only a few years after 1955, and since then expansion has continued.

3.1.10.
In 1971, the system was changed radically. From an organisational point of view, the reform implied that vocational education, in principle, became a part of 'integrated secondary school', the other parts being, longer (3 or 4 years) and shorter (2 years) theoretical study programmes. This reform was the first step in merging the gymnasium school tradition with the ideas and culture from vocational schools in a comprehensive upper secondary school system. The municipal and private trade schools were transformed into vocational study programmes, most of them two years in duration and incorporated into the integrated secondary school. The organisational changes were justified by the need to make vocational education not only more general, making pupils more flexible in a rapidly changing labour market; but also more attractive to prospective students, not least to pupils from 'upper' social groups. Subjects with general application (e.g. Swedish, English, mathematics) were expanded in the curriculum. Partly as a consequence, the length of the education programmes was increased. The normal study programme took two years to complete, and in addition, a large number of 'special courses' of varying length were introduced.

3.1.11.
Another aspect of the reform was that a principle – all youngsters are entitled to upper secondary schooling – was stated. This implied a continued expansion, in particular of vocationally oriented study programmes. The quantitative target was reached in the early 1980s. In the late 1980s, more ambitious qualitative targets were set.

Vocational education and training as part of modern adult education

3.1.12.
Municipal adult education *(kommunal vuxenutbildning* or *komvux)* has developed out of non-formal popular adult education, from evening classes and correspondence education. Popular education was the dominating forum in which adults pursued education up to the late 1950s.

3.1.13.
Increasing demand for competence in the labour market and for higher educational qualifications among adults in order to provide access to further training became even more important when people chose their own education. This was the main reason for adult education for competence being separated from popular non-formal education, as the latter was almost never aimed at formal skills and certificates. Four main reasons for the concentration on formal adult education were mentioned in the government bill in 1967. These were:
- bridging the gap in education in society;
- creating opportunities for the individual;
- completing or supplementing education in school;
- providing the labour market with well-educated workers.

As a result of the international debate on recurrent education and lifelong learning, as well as strong demand from the trade unions, the redistribution goals in adult education policy came increasingly to the forefront. The government bill for education in 1971 stressed that the bridging goal for adult education was to reduce differences in the standards of living. The ongoing reforms during the 1970s also clarified the financial conditions for adults to take part in education. Education policy maintained through legislation the right to leave of absence for study purposes and various forms of study assistance, giving priority to those with poor or insufficient education. During the first part of the 1970s, basic adult education was provided for adults with insufficient knowledge and skills in reading, writing or mathematics.

3.1.14.
The ongoing changes in work organisation and working life during the 1980s with increasing demand for competence among workers led to rapid growth in in-company or personnel training i.e. education which is organised, and/or paid for, by employers' organisations or commissioned for employees. The in-house training provided by companies and public authorities expanded faster than any other form of adult education during the 1980s. In 1992, roughly 1.5 million employees or 35 % of the total number of employees received some form of in-house training. The figures for 1993 showed a considerable decline to 23 %, mainly due to increasing unemployment. In 1995, however, around 40 % of the labour force participated in in-company training.

3.1.15.
Employment training *(arbetsmarknadsutbildning)* (for definition, see Annex 4) forms part of an active labour market policy aimed at reducing unemployment, promoting economic growth and supporting disadvantaged groups. This form of training was created in the 1950s, but it developed mainly during the 1960s and 1970s. During that period some 100 training centres were built in various parts of the country in order to meet the need for employment training. Parliament and government allocate funds for labour market policy programmes through the national budget. One third of this allocation is applied to employment training.

Employment training primarily takes the form of courses purchased by county labour market boards or an employment office. County labour market boards and employment offices plan their purchase of employment training with reference to the needs of the labour market and their knowledge as to which job seekers have difficulty in finding work.

Educational leave

3.1.16.
The 1975 Educational Leave Act *(lagen 1974:981 om arbetstagares rätt till ledighet för utbildning)* states that all employees are entitled to leave of absence for studies which normally can only be pursued during working hours. The act entitles an employee to leave of absence if he or she has been working for the same employer for the past six months or for a total of 12 months in the past two years. The employee is entitled to trade union education regardless of standing. The choice of study programme rests entirely with the individual; nor are there any restrictions on the duration of studies. Studying privately (i.e. without being at an educational institution) as such, however, does not come within the purview of the act. The right to educational leave is distinguished from entitlement to financial compensation. This means that, once educational leave has been awarded, the employee must either obtain compensation for loss of earnings by special agreement with the employer or else apply for financial compensation through, for example, the adult study assistance scheme. The act does not lay down any rules concerning employment benefits during educational leave. In other words no pay or other financial benefits are guaranteed. On the other hand, there are job security rules applying to persons exercising their right to leave of absence. The act also includes provisions concerning the rights of people wishing to discontinue their studies to return to work.

Stronger links between vocational and popular education

3.1.17.
Traditionally, there have been quite distinct profiles for vocational and popular adult education. The role of popular education is to enhance the individual's personal development, to strengthen democracy and to support cultural development, while vocational education promoted more occupationally defined goals. During the early 1990s, new resources were allocated to popular adult education to provide new courses and alternative horizons for adults who were unemployed or temporarily redundant. This background justifies the inclusion of popular adult education in a report on CVT in Sweden.

3.1.18.
Popular adult education comprises studies at folk high schools *(folkhögskolor)* or residential colleges for adults or studies, usually in the form of study circles, under the aegis of adult education associations. A declared objective of popular education is to develop basic democratic values in society by giving all citizens the opportunity of developing their general knowledge and skills, strengthening their self-confidence and increasing their understanding and respect for the opinions of other people. Popular education activities are partly State subsidised, but the various organisers are at complete liberty to decide the focus and content of the activities

themselves. There are no curricula or syllabuses formulated by external bodies, nor are certificates issued in this type of education.

3.1.19.
Residential adult colleges – folk high schools – are Sweden's oldest form of adult education. The first school was founded in 1868 as a means of providing landowners with the education needed to discharge various public responsibilities. About half of the over 130 schools are run by popular movements, such as the labour movement, the temperance movement and various free church denominations. The others are operated by municipalities and county councils. All folk high schools organise long- as well as short-term courses and many schools offer special courses in a particular subject field, e.g. drama, music, immigrant studies or youth leadership. Certain courses confer eligibility for post-secondary education. Candidates for folk high school must be at least 18 years old and must have completed compulsory school or its equivalent. Tuition is free of charge but students pay their own board and lodging.

3.1.20.
Commissioned education is a relatively new element in Swedish education. Initially it was the universities and university colleges that were given the opportunity of providing education on a commercial basis. During the 1980s, similar conditions were created for general adult education as well. In 1986, however, a statutory amendment made it possible for local education authorities, folk high schools and the adult education associations to sell general or customised education to companies, organisations and other interests. The educational activities thus provided must be fully paid for by the customer and not be State-subsidised nor may commissioned education detract from the availability or development of normal educational activities.

3.2. Initial vocational education and training (IVT)

Reforming initial vocational education

3.2.1.
The Swedish Parliament took a decision in 1991 on reforming the upper secondary school system. This reform was implemented over a five-year period that began in the academic year 1992/93.

3.2.2.
Both parliament and the government laid down in the School Act, the goals and guidelines that are to apply to all school activities. The School Act provides the framework for municipal decisions concerning the school. The curriculum and the syllabus as well as the time schedule determine the contents of activities in the school.

3.2.3.
As a result of the decision by Parliament in 1991, upper secondary education is organised in 16 nationally determined three-year programmes – 2 theoretical and 14 vocational. Thus vocational education now forms an integrated part of the upper secondary school and includes a larger number of general subjects. It also provides a broader and more general knowledge of vocational subjects.

Figure 13. Major events in the development of vocational education and training in Sweden

1842	The introduction of the *Folkskola* Act
1868	Starting of the first folk high school (*Folkhögskola*) with a combined civic and vocational character
1898	Swedish Trade Union Federation, *LO*, is organised
1902	Swedish Employers Confederation, *SAF*, is organised
1907	Study circles (*studiecirklar*) develop within popular movements
1918	Parliamentary decisions on reforming vocational education
1937	Governmental commission on workshop schools (*verkstadsskola*)
1944	National Board of Vocational Education is established and central workshop schools are set up
	Swedish Federation of Professional Employees, *TCO*, is organised
1946	Appointment of a new governmental school commission (1946 *års skolkommission*) for reforming youth education
1947	Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations, *SACO*, is organised
1955	New full-time vocational schools are organised
1962	Parliamentary decision on establishing nine-year comprehensive school (*Grundskola*)
1969	Widened access to higher education
	Municipal adult education (*Komvux*) is established
1970	New curriculum for upper secondary education (*Lgy 70*)
1971	First integration of VET into traditional gymnasium
1975	Act on educational leave of absence and major adult education reforms
1977	Reform of higher education, dividing it into labour market sectors
1985	Parliamentary decision on Swedish Education Act (*Skollagen*)
1991	New reform of upper secondary education (16 three-year programmes)
	Total integration of VET and traditional gymnasium
1993	New higher education reform focusing on academic values, quality of education, efficiency and increasing autonomy of universities and university colleges
1994	New curriculum for compulsory education (*Grundskola*) (*LPO 94*) and for upper secondary schools, (*LPF 94*)
1996	Introduction of advanced vocational training for employees with short formal education
1997	Adult education promotion reform (*Kunskapslyftet*) adult rights to upper secondary school programmes
	New three-year upper secondary school fully implemented

SOURCE: **SWEDISH EU PROGRAMME OFFICE.**

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3.2.4.
Vocational education programmes are built on the basis of cooperation between the school and working life. At least 15 % of the students' total time in the vocational national programmes must be spent at a workplace. School boards are responsible for the procurement of training opportunities, and for supervision of the students during their workplace training. During this part of their education, the students have a purely student status.

3.2.5.
Vocational education should to a greater extent than hitherto provide a broad basic education within a vocational area and be oriented towards providing knowledge that is fundamental and generally relevant. The proportion of general subjects should increase and the responsibility for obtaining specialist competence be undertaken externally by companies. Teachers are always responsible for awarding grades. With the introduction of education located at the workplace, supervisors from companies will, however, play an important role in evaluating the performance of students.

3.2.6.
The emphasis on a core curriculum of Swedish, English, civics and mathematics in vocational programmes is not only an adjustment to the growing needs for knowledge and skills in working life. It is also a platform for lifelong learning and further studies at higher education level. By extending the two-year programmes to three years, initial vocational education in Sweden will be able to aim at a better integration of theory and practice as a result of this reform.

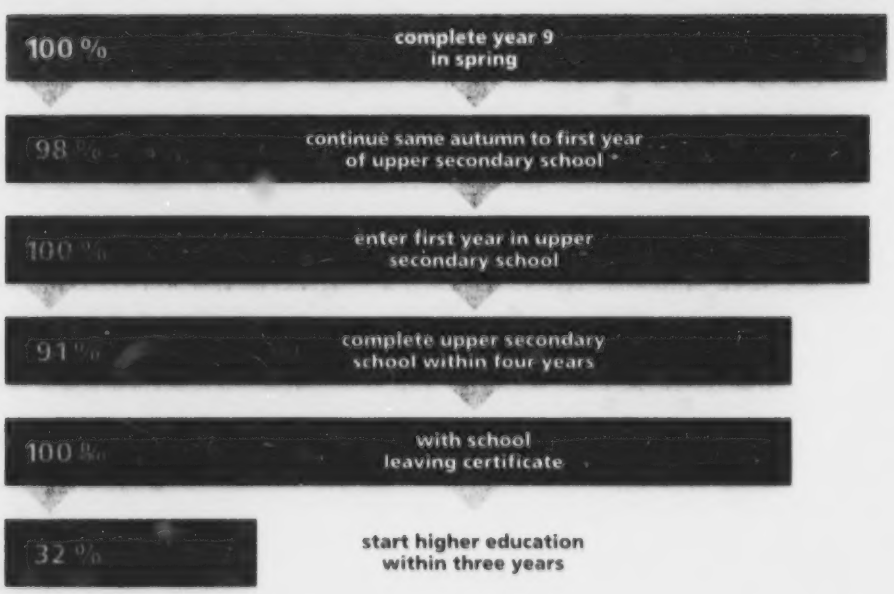
3.2.7.
Since the 1970s there has not been any general apprenticeship system in Sweden, although the social partners have established their own systems for employees after upper secondary schooling within certain branches, e. g. the building trade. In 1992 a possibility opened to integrate apprenticeship in the individual programme as a temporary measure to handle school fatigue or disaffection for certain individuals. As a pilot project apprenticeship systems will be introduced in 15 municipalities during 1998. The effect of the system is a prolongation of the period in upper secondary school to four years. During the third and fourth years the students will be apprentices at work places for a total of 500 hours.

3.2.8.
Since 1 July 1992 municipalities have been obliged, under the School Act, to provide upper secondary schooling for all pupils leaving compulsory school. This applies to all residents up to and including the first six months of the year of their 20th birthday wishing to enter upper secondary schooling. A compulsory school leaving certificate qualifies the pupil to enter upper secondary school, irrespective of the optional subjects taken at the senior level of compulsory school. However, in accordance with a decision in parliament in autumn 1993, pass grades in Swedish, English and mathematics from the compulsory school were introduced as eligibility requirements for the national programmes in the school year 1998/99. The great majority of upper secondary studies take place in schools coming under municipal control. Studies in agriculture, forestry, horticulture and certain health care occupations, however, take place in schools run by the county councils.

Participation and transition rates

3.2.9.
Of those students leaving compulsory school in spring 1995, 98 % studied in the upper secondary school in the autumn of the same year. They accounted for the major part of the students in the first year of the upper secondary school, but there were also students changing programmes in the upper secondary school. Of those starting the first year of a programme, around 90 % complete their upper secondary studies within a four-year period.

Figure 14: **Completion of compulsory schooling, transfer to upper secondary and higher education**


100 %
complete year 9 in spring
98 %
continue same autumn to first year of upper secondary school *
100 %
enter first year in upper secondary school
91 %
complete upper secondary school within four years
100 %
with school leaving certificate
32 %
start higher education within three years

SOURCE: *NATIONAL AGENCY FOR EDUCATION, 1997.*

The transition rate from upper secondary education to higher education has increased significantly during the last decade. Nowadays, every third upper secondary education graduate continues to higher education within three years. There is, however, a significant variation between different study programmes. The transition rate from vocationally oriented study programmes in the former upper secondary system was, with a few exceptions, very low. At the same time, transition rates in the science programme exceeded 80 % of the students graduating from the programme.

The table overleaf illustrates the increasing transition rate during the decade 1985/86 to 1994/95.

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Table 8. **Percentage of graduates from upper secondary education who started higher education within 10 years**

Graduation Year	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Year 6	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10
1985/86	8	14	21	24	27	29	30	31	33	34
1986/87	8	15	21	25	28	30	31	33	32	
1987/88	9	16	22	26	28	31	32	34		
1988/89	11	18	24	28	31	33	35			
1989/90	12	22	28	32	35	37				
1990/91	16	26	32	36	39					
1991/92	18	28	34	37						
1992/93	18	29	35							
1993/94	18	30								
1994/95	22									

SOURCE: *STATISTICS SWEDEN 1997. U 36 SM.*

New programme structure

3.2.10.
The former system of upper secondary education was divided into about 25 different lines (*linjer*) of two or three years' duration and some 500 specialised courses. In the new upper secondary school – fully implemented in the year 1997/98 – all education is organised in study programmes of three years' duration. The new vocational programmes are designed to confer wider and deeper knowledge compared with vocational studies previously. Students are also given increased choice with respect to the content of their own education, as well as greater opportunities to influence the learning situation and the forms of evaluation.

3.2.11.
There are 16 nationally determined programmes, 14 of which are primarily vocationally oriented and 2 preparing primarily for university studies. Most national programmes are divided into branches for the second and third year. In addition to the national branches drawn up centrally, municipalities may choose to set up local branches adapted to local needs and conditions.

The educational aims of the national programmes are set out in programme goals. The programmes must provide a broad basic education within the vocational field, as well as providing the foundation for continuing studies on completion of the upper secondary school.

Students who are unsure of what to study may also study in individual programmes of varying length and content. After having studied in an individual programme, the student may transfer to one of the national programmes or a specially designed programme.

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Structure of national programmes

Mainly theoretical programmes

- Natural science programme – directed towards further studies in mathematics, science subjects and technology
- Social science programme – directed towards further studies in social sciences, economics and languages

Mainly vocational programmes

- Arts programme – broad basic education for work within arts-related professions
- Business and administration programme – for work in commerce and administration in private business and public administration
- Child and recreation programme – for work in child-care, after-school and recreational activities, health-care, sports and libraries
- Construction programme – for work in the construction industry, building or civil engineering
- Electrical engineering programme – for work on installation, repair and maintenance of electrical, telecommunications and electronic equipment
- Energy programme – for work in, for example, electricity and power stations, heating, ventilation and sanitation installations as well as related work on board ships
- Food programme – for work within food processing, sales and distribution
- Handicraft and trades programme – for work within different handicraft and trade professions with a large part of the education being located at the workplace
- Health care programme – for work within the health, dental care and support service sectors
- Hotel, restaurant and catering programme – for work as e.g. a receptionist, conference organiser, waiter or chef
- Industry programme – for work within industrial production, including programming and operating computer-controlled machines and processes
- Media programme – for work within advertising, various forms of design and production of graphic media
- Natural resource use programme – for work in agriculture, forestry, horticulture and animal husbandry
- Vehicle engineering programme – for work in the repair and maintenance of cars, lorries and machines.

3.2.12.
Students who have special requirements other than those provided for within the national programmes can opt to follow a specially designed programme, for which the school, in active collaboration with the individual student, designs an individual syllabus for the whole period of study. These are three years in duration, formally conferring general eligibility for further studies at post-secondary level and they have the same core subjects as the national programmes. The rest of the time includes combinations from both theoretical and vocational subjects from two or more programmes.

3.2.13.
Municipalities must offer a comprehensive selection of national programmes, and admissions capacity for the various programmes must be adapted to student

preferences. If a municipality is unable to provide all programmes, it may make agreements to cooperate with other municipalities.

Most programmes are divided into various branches that pupils choose to study from the second year onwards. Specialisation is also provided through different courses, especially where there are no branches. Not all schools or municipalities offer all programmes or courses. There may also be local branches.

Programme structure and participation

3.2.14.
The number of pupils in upper secondary education in various programmes is summarised in the table below. The two theoretical programmes are the biggest ones with 30 % of the total number of pupils. Generally, however, study oriented programmes are taken by less than one third of the Swedish upper secondary school population.

Figure 15. Number of pupils in Swedish upper secondary education, 15 October 1996

	Men	Women	Total
National programmes	143 498	138 446	281 994
of which:			
Arts	4 762	9 721	14 483
Business and administration	8 416	8 907	17 323
Child and recreation	5 140	16 297	21 437
Construction	7 559	187	7 746
Electrical engineering	13 467	188	13 655
Energy	2 357	68	2 425
Food	909	1 262	2 171
Handicrafts	598	3 391	3 989
Health care	1 831	10 554	12 385
Hotel and catering	5 979	7 413	13 392
Industry	8 088	533	8 621
Media	4 227	5 722	9 949
Natural resources use	3 308	3 567	6 875
Natural sciences	35 224	22 521	57 745
Social sciences	29 858	47 818	77 676
Vehicle engineering	11 775	297	12 072
Specially designed programmes	4 864	3 273	8 137
Individual programmes	8 583	7 437	16 020
International baccalaureate	282	458	740
Special courses and lines	2 382	3998	6 380
Total	**159 609**	**153 612**	**313 221**

SOURCE **NATIONAL AGENCY FOR EDUCATION, 1998.**

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3.2.15.
In total, there are 641 upper secondary schools in Sweden. Almost 50 % of the schools are rather small, with less than 200 pupils. A few schools have only around 10 pupils and 75 schools provide only the individual programme. The largest school has more than 2 400 pupils and almost one upper secondary school out of five has more than 1 000 pupils. Upper secondary schools provide theoretical and/or vocational programmes. Some vocational schools are oriented towards specific sectors of society and might provide a few or just one or two programmes. This is common for some industrial schools working closely with an industrial corporation such as Volvo or ABB. Also in the health sector, there are relatively few programmes per vocational school. The introduction of more liberal rules and generous financial support for independent schools has also had an impact on upper secondary education and especially vocational schools, e.g. media.

A common core of subjects in all programmes

3.2.16
The core subjects shown in Table 9 are common to all programmes, with a minimum guaranteed tuition-time per three-year programme.

Table 9. **Minimum hours in core subjects**

Minimum hours in core subjects	Minimum hours guaranteed
Swedish	200
English	110
Social studies	90
Religious studies	30
Mathematics	110
Science	30
Sport and health studies	80
Aesthetic activities	30

In addition, students take subjects which are specific to their programme. All students carry out a project during their course of studies. In all programmes, time is set aside for local supplements or practical work connected with subjects, as well as for individual options to allow students to choose additional subjects and courses within the national programmes.

3.2.17.
The time schedules, which are now incorporated in the School Act, express in units of 60 minutes the minimum guaranteed teacher or supervisor-led instruction time. This amounts to 2 400 hours for the vocationally oriented programmes, workplace study schemes (*APU*) included and 2 180 hours for theoretical programmes, over the three years. The local education authority or school decides when different subjects are to be studied and how long the lessons should be.

Subjects of a more substantial length are broken down into courses, each of them having a specific content, to be chosen, studied and marked upon completion of the course. The higher number of teaching hours for vocational programmes arises from the need for practical instruction and exercises and also to provide scope for core subjects.

3.2.18.
An overview of some major characteristics of the new upper secondary education reform is presented below.

Table 10. Some facts on upper secondary education

The reform means	**How a national programme is designed**
• Each municipality is obliged to provide education for all young persons up to 20 years of age.	• Most programmes are divided into branches.
• 16 national three-year programmes.	• The programmes cover core subjects and subjects specific to a study programme, which consist of one or more courses.
• Individual programmes.	• Each course has a number of points.
• Specially designed programmes.	• In all programmes, apart from the individual programme, there are compulsory courses in the core subjects: Swedish/Swedish as a second language, English, social studies, religious studies, mathematics, science, sport and health studies, aesthetic activities.
• Modular programmes.	• Each programme also includes courses in subjects specific to the programme, which provide a special focus for the programme.
• Minimum guaranteed teaching hours for the student, expressed in 60 minute teaching hours per subject/subject area.	• Special projects and individual options are a part of the education.
• Goal-related grades with four levels: **1.** Fail **2.** Pass **3.** Pass with credit **4.** Pass with distinction.	• In most programmes, there is work place training (*APU*).
• Grades are awarded as each course is completed.	• The programmes may cover local branches and local courses.

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Work place training (APU)

3.2.19.
In the vocationally oriented programmes at least 15 % of the students' total time is to take the form of training at a place of work (*APU, Arbetsplatsförlagd utbildning*). This is syllabus-guided training. Only vocational courses may be transferred to a place of work. Local decisions determine which parts of these courses are to be located at a place of work. The board of the school is responsible for supplying workplaces and for seeing that *APU* meets the demands placed on the training. The advisory bodies for cooperation between schools and local trade and industry, vocational councils or programme councils, are very important in planning such items as the provision of training, the purchase of equipment, *APU* and the training of supervisors.

3.2.20.
Training at place of work requires close cooperation between the school and the workplace. School boards at municipal or county levels are responsible for the procurement of training opportunities and for supervision of the pupils during their workplace training. During this part of their education, pupils have a purely student status. Supervisors from the company play an important role in evaluating the performance of pupils. Through this training, pupils come into direct contact with working life. They also come into direct contact with companies of which may wish to employ them. For the companies, this participation in work place training allows them to influence the content, planning and implementation of the training and also to form an opinion of the individuals they may wish to see as future employees.

The reformed upper secondary vocational education includes core subjects of a more general nature such as Swedish, English and mathematics than before. It also gives a more general and broader knowledge of vocational subjects. This means that a student who has gone through the new form of vocational education is more of a generalist than a specialist. Specialisation will be a matter for the future employer. Vocational education should not be a dead-end but the first step in a process of lifelong learning.

Further development of choice options – course based schools

3.2.21.
The upper secondary school is now developing in a more course-based (modular) direction as distinct from the former subject-oriented upper secondary school with its relatively rigid study organisation and choice patterns. There is, as described above, a greater amount of time set aside for individual choices. The eight core subjects take about one third of the time, but the rest can be put together according to the individual choices of the student – provided that the actual subject and course is given in the municipality in question. The regular upper secondary school is three years in duration. In the course-based school the pupil can take more or less time to finish his or her programme. It must, though, be of the same extent and quality as the national programmes.

3.2.22.
The advantages of making the upper secondary school more course-oriented include the following. It:

- allows pupils to have more influence on their own education;
- offers opportunities to renew education in step with the changing needs of working life by substituting or updating courses (modules);
- allows municipalities to focus their education to meet local needs;
- makes it possible to create education with a more clearly defined vocational orientation than provided by the national programmes and branches;
- allows pupils to combine vocational courses with preparatory courses for further studies and to create their own study programmes based on individual choice;
- allows pupils to go more slowly or quickly through the upper secondary school than the normal three years;
- allows pupils to start their studies at their own level of competence, which makes the link with compulsory school easier.

As the upper secondary school moves in the direction of a more course-based school, it will be possible to realise what has long been on the political agenda, namely closer cooperation between the upper secondary school and upper secondary adult education in the municipalities.

Towards a continuous reform evaluation

3.2.23.
The evaluation and monitoring of the results of upper secondary education is a shared responsibility between the State and municipalities. In addition to the work of the National Agency for Education, the government has appointed a commission on the assessment of the development of upper secondary school to follow up the reform. It has published two reports (*SOU* 1996:1 and *SOU* 1997:1) and summarised the first experiences of the new reform. With regard to *APU* it stressed the fact that only one school out of three had implemented the *APU* model in its stipulated length. Furthermore it discussed the options of extending the use of *APU* to theoretical programmes. This idea was proposed in the government bill on education and approved by parliament in 1996. Thus, it is now possible for the municipalities to put this proposal into practice.

An overview of the government's assessment of the development of the school system is also presented in the National Development Plan for pre-school, school and adult education (Ministry of Education and Science, 1997). One of the issues analysed in the National Development Plan is the role of the core subjects at upper secondary level.

The reform of the upper secondary school led to a significant raising in the levels of knowledge goals. The introduction of core subjects for all the programmes in the upper secondary school has led to educational policy ambitions being set substantially higher. This together with the fact that the upper secondary school is in practice open to all young persons in a given age group, means that reforming the upper secondary school cannot be implemented without special efforts.

A problem that has emerged concerns the lack of initial knowledge of those beginning their upper secondary education. Currently available statistics on grades awarded in the upper secondary school obtained from schools before pupils have completed a programme, show that the vast majority of pupils (around 93 %) have achieved approved results in the core subject courses that they have completed. The Commission into the development of the upper secondary school in its latest interim report shows that despite the difficulties of making comparisons, the distribution of the lowest and highest grades does not tangibly differ between the present and previous grading systems. Under both grading systems, there is a small proportion of pupils who lack initial knowledge in some subjects when beginning their upper secondary education. In order to make graduates from *grundskolan* better prepared for upper secondary education new admission rules will be introduced from the school year 1998/99.

3.2.24.
Municipalities are obliged to provide students with an all-round range of national programmes and the number of places made available should reflect the interest and demands of students. In general, this is the situation. However, especially where it concerns certain popular educational programmes (e.g. hairdressing in the crafts programme, the media programme) the students have not always been able to have their first choice satisfied.

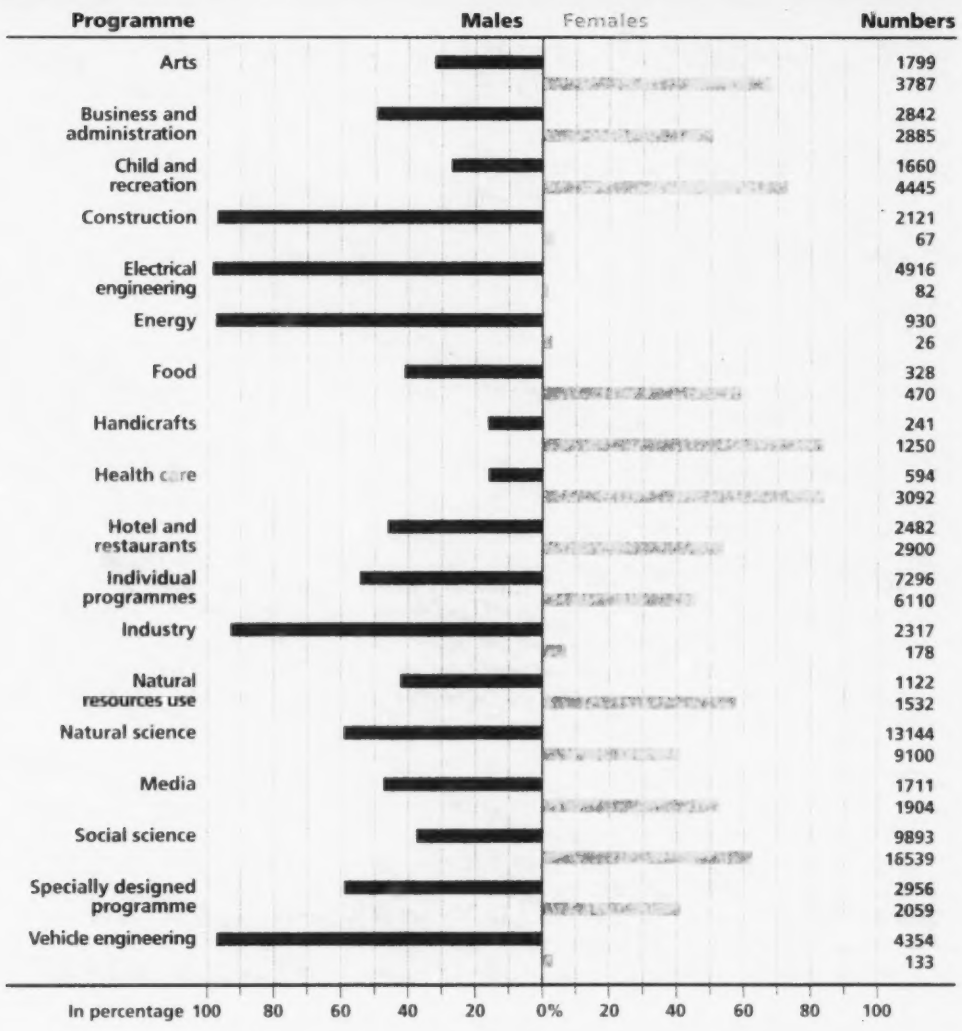
During the first three years of the upper secondary school reform, many schools have, to varying degrees, gradually changed the supply, organisation and contents of their programmes. At the same time, the management structure has also changed. In the initial phase of the reform, many municipalities made rapid decisions to introduce programmes with a special focus, often by establishing local branches and local courses. Especially in large towns and other areas with good public transport, it was generally appreciated at an early stage that schools must be as attractive as possible, since each student is an important source of income (and costs).

3.2.25.
There is a possibility for upper secondary schools to establish local branches with a focus that differs from national branches. Local branches used to be open to applicants from all over the country, but due to a new government policy the parliament has decided to restrict local branches to applicants from the municipality or cooperating municipalities. A number of different reasons exist for developing local branches. One is to attract applicants from other municipalities. Another is to satisfy labour market and educational needs at both the regional and local level. The ambition is also to develop new, modern, educational programmes for the future, but in a number of cases this has so far only resulted in re-creating previous educational courses.

Continuing gender bias in upper secondary education

3.2.26.
Upper secondary education in Sweden is dominated by both gender and social bias. Social background still influences or dominates the individual's choice of programmes. Gender bias has not changed significantly over the last decade. Only in seven out of eighteen programmes is there an equal distribution of the sexes. In the technical programmes, there are no more than 10 % female pupils. In two former study lines (electricity-telecommunication and vehicles-transport), there was not a single female participant.

Figure 16. **Gender bias among new students 15 October 1997, at upper secondary level**



SOURCE *STATISTICS SWEDEN 1998. YEARBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.*

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The individual programme as an essential element in upper secondary education

3.2.27.
The individual programme was created to give a new start for pupils not making sufficient progress in compulsory schooling or who were uncertain over their future educational or vocational choices. During the autumn of 1995 there were over 17 000 pupils enrolled in the individual programme, which was somewhat less than 10 % of the total number of participants in initial vocational education. Some pupils dropped out of other programmes and continued their second or third year in the individual programme. Others were able to move from the individual programme to a vocational programme. As a result, internal movement within the upper secondary education system is quite extensive. It is difficult, however, to estimate the total number of pupils who change programme during a single year. The number of pupils leaving upper secondary education before completing their education is around 1.3 %. Others choose to continue later in municipal adult education. All in all, this means that the time to complete upper secondary education studies might exceed three years. Given the combination of the individual programme and adult studies later on, some pupils, probably a very small minority, will take between four or five years to complete their upper secondary studies.

Table 11. **Number of students following an individual programme**

Year	Total	Immigrants within total
1992	>10 500	2 100
1993	13 595	2 236
1994	16 496	3 234
1995	17 233	3 032

SOURCE: *NATIONAL AGENCY FOR EDUCATION 1995, REPORT 93.*

The upper secondary school reform requires new forms of organisation and new thinking

3.2.28.
Management by objectives raises the central issue of what knowledge students should attain, at the same time as there is a reduction in the rules governing how studies and work should be organised. To draw up programmes and courses and apply the national goals involves a considerable amount of work. Current approaches to planning school work have been challenged, not only by the goals in the curricula, the programmes and the syllabuses, but also by the new, more knowledge-related, grading system. Changes confront teachers with new questions on their approach to learning and knowledge, as well as the role of the teacher vis-à-vis students. In addition, changes are demanded in basic attitudes to management and the distribution of responsibility – all of which are time consuming.

There is much evidence that the rate of innovation and the ability to find new solutions is accelerating in many schools. At the same time, differences in thinking and organisation between schools have increased. This could result in schools with

great capacity to change rapidly creating their own networks and, in terms of development, leaving other schools behind.

Goal documents and grades have been widely discussed

3.2.29.
Upper secondary schools have in recent years found themselves in a 'field of tension' between a traditional, line-oriented school and an upper secondary school with modular programmes. Staff and students have continually been confronted by new steering documents and directives from both national and municipal levels. This has often resulted in a stressful work environment.

The initial phases have focused on issues concerning the organisation of studies. Later, grading criteria have created intensive discussions amongst teachers and students. These discussions deal with, for example, the knowledge students should acquire, an understanding of educational approaches, grade levels and the design of test instruments. As a result of the issues involved in the grading system, students have become more actively involved in discussions over the reform. The criticism of the upper secondary school reform often expressed by teachers centres on a lack of clarity and, for some teachers, contradictory messages (e.g. concerning management by objectives and management by time). This criticism reflects not least problems related to the large number of changes to be implemented in a short period of time. Many have expressed their support for the content and basic ideas of the reform. However, it is clear that there are difficulties in seeing the reform from an overall 'holistic' viewpoint. The reason for this is, amongst others, that the curriculum came after programmes with preliminary syllabuses had been introduced. Headteachers seem to have been active agents in the transformation process, but have themselves also been affected by the reorganisation.

Different vocational traditions – an obstacle to cooperation

3.2.30.
Many stages in the reform require close cooperation within and between different categories of staff and representatives of different subjects. Historically important differences between vocationally oriented courses and preparatory courses for further studies, and between teachers in different types of subjects, create problems when educational reform is to be implemented. Schools try different models to bring about cooperation, such as work groups, teacher teams, programme councils, etc. However, in the current phase of the reform, interpretation of the syllabuses and criteria for grading in courses or subjects appears to have consumed so much energy that cooperation across traditional subject boundaries has not progressed and sometimes has become even less than before the reform.

Students in the new upper secondary school have to make choices. This implies *de facto* some competition over students. Guarantees of teaching hours have in some schools led to teachers 'protecting their hours'. This can also make cooperation more difficult. Instead of the guarantee over teaching hours being understood as a guarantee of the student's right to teaching, there has been a tendency for it to become a factor determining how many teaching hours a course should always provide.

3.2.31.
So far the reform has not noticeably changed established social structures in the upper secondary school. Differences in culture, attitudes and status, not least between students in the more vocationally and higher education oriented programmes, still remain. In general, students are very aware of these patterns, whilst staff may have difficulties in observing then. Sometimes, educational programmes may appear as different worlds where segregating factors and patterns originating from older forms of education are apparent. Even though the reform in a formal sense means increasing freedom of choice for students, there are social and cultural attitudes connected to different programmes, which affect how students make their choices. Students' own attitudes as well as the attitudes of the surrounding world on 'possible' alternative choices, and thus on freedom of choice do not appear the same in the science programme compared with, for example, the industrial programme.

Teaching groups have become more heterogeneous

3.2.32.
Almost everyone finishing the last year of compulsory school now starts upper secondary school. Broader access routes to the new school programme have led, amongst other things, to great variations in students' starting knowledge and levels of ambition within certain programmes. This has been particularly noticeable in the social science programme, where there are more students than any other programme. Common solutions for handling more heterogeneous classes within different subjects and courses – especially mathematics and languages – have been to provide students with opportunities to choose courses with different requirements concerning starting knowledge. Schools have also gradually begun to organise teaching so that students have the opportunity to choose a specific course with a lower or higher number of teaching hours, i.e. creating more flexible ways of managing guaranteed teaching hours.

As courses in core subjects are a part of each student's education, it is mainly in this area that the major differences in knowledge are noticeable. Discussions have thus often dealt with the question of differentiating educational goals for students in different programmes and with different preconditions. So far having the same educational goals for students with different starting knowledge and different needs for pedagogical support is regarded as being somewhat problematic.

3.2.33.
Other ways of preventing and solving difficulties connected to variations in the student's previous knowledge have involved ongoing discussions between teachers or other staff and the student. Other steps have been taken with the help of diagnoses and staff with specialist competence, or through the development of local courses to compensate for shortcomings in basic knowledge. Often, however, it seems that strategies have not been developed for satisfying the needs of students who are regarded as not having successfully completed courses. Remedial measures adopted within the framework of the class have often appeared to be of an ad hoc character, even though they may have been effective. On the other hand, solutions for helping students to continue their upper secondary education have involved students transferring to more individual courses within the framework of a more limited national programme or to an individual programme itself.

A vital issue appears to be the extent to which course content corresponds to the different needs of individuals. Examples indicate that this can happen when students are able to exercise some influence over the content of, and approach to, their education. In schools that have been relatively successful in this area, teachers in different subjects have worked together and teaching in the core subjects has had less 'traditional academic content'.

Workplace training is highly valued

3.2.34.
In an investigation in spring 1995, upper secondary students in programmes and lines were surveyed on their views regarding workplace training (*APU*) and practice. Almost nine out of ten students on vocationally oriented programmes stated that they were satisfied with *APU* and work practice where they were applying what they had learnt in school. A slightly larger proportion (90 %) were either very or quite satisfied at being able to learn new skills at the workplace. Students in, the nursing line and the health care programme were the most satisfied. Students were also satisfied with the supervision they received at the workplace. They appreciated being able to see the connection between the knowledge they acquired at school and the demands imposed by working life. Students were more critical of the school's follow-up of their training at the workplace, as well as over the cooperation between the school and workplace.

Despite the positive picture given of *APU*, many schools regard this as a difficult area requiring major efforts in terms of both planning and implementation. The opportunities for arranging *APU* varies, however, between programmes. Schools are dependent on the links they have established with individual organisations, and the local industrial structure, in addition to how well established cooperation generally is between schools and companies/institutions. These difficulties reside mainly in being unable to arrange a sufficient number of places to secure high quality in workplace training connected to the goals of education. This is an area where workplace supervisors regard themselves as having insufficient knowledge.

Freedom of choice imposes demands on information and guidance

3.2.35.
Information on the different alternatives within and between programmes, on the upper secondary school generally, as well as on eligibility for higher education has become increasingly important as a result of the reform. A course-oriented upper secondary school imposes greater demands for guidance. It also requires new approaches to guidance, information and study planning as well as careful consideration of the range of courses the school provides. The decision to introduce programmes was taken rapidly by some municipalities. This led to difficulties in circulating information on what was available. Students have expressed their dissatisfaction with the information in different ways. They have also been critical about not being able to have their choices satisfied. This has been particularly true of courses where there was scope for individual choices. The schools have been forced to restrict the initial 'smorgasbord' of courses they offered students for financial or timetabling reasons. Another issue students highlighted is that they were not able to obtain satisfactory information on the value of different courses in relation to eligibility and selection criteria for higher education.

Upper secondary adult education

3.2.36.
The same curriculum applies now to upper secondary adult education as to the upper secondary school. This has had less effect on adult education compared with the upper secondary school, since a major part of what is new in the reform of the upper secondary school is similar to what applied earlier in municipal adult education. Some of the similarities concern the division of subjects into core subjects and subjects that are specific to a programme, as well as the division of subjects into courses. Also expressing the range of a programme in terms of hours resembles the earlier demand for a leaving certificate in municipal adult education.

Headteachers and teachers within upper secondary adult education are generally positive towards the reform of the upper secondary school. Their view is that the status of adult education has been raised by having the same curriculum and syllabuses as for the upper secondary school. The goal documents have had a direct, beneficial effect on cooperation between teachers. In discussions, the dominant issues have been about knowledge and learning as well as the planning and organisation of teaching. Staff have a basic attitude that is positive to the reform but at the same time, there is some concern that activities within the upper secondary school may have an excessively dominating effect on municipal adult education.

Teachers at municipal adult education schools emphasise that the increased knowledge requirements of the syllabuses could create difficulties for weaker students. Students very often experience the tempo as high. Teachers also regard it as difficult to obtain an overall view of students in the new system, where it is unusual for a group to study a number of courses together. As a result schools have experienced difficulties in finding general solutions for students with problems in their studies.

3.3. Continuing vocational training (CVT)

Vocational training in municipal adult education

3.3.1.
It is difficult to draw a clear line between initial and continuing vocational training. A substantial part of initial training in Sweden takes place within the public school system for adults. This component of IVT is regulated under the School Act. The system comprises:
- municipal adult education,
- adult education for the intellectually handicapped, and
- basic Swedish language instruction for immigrants.

As is the case with youth education, responsibility for this part of the education system rests with the municipalities and to some extent the counties.

3.3.2.
Municipal adult education, for persons over 20 years of age, has existed since 1968. As of the school year 1992/93, it includes:
- basic adult education,
- upper secondary adult education, and
- supplementary education for adults.

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Studies within municipal adult education lead to formal qualifications in individual subjects or to the equivalent of a complete leaving certificate from the compulsory school and/or the upper secondary school. Education is organised in the form of separate courses, which should be arranged in such a way that students can combine studies with employment. Students are free to choose their own study programme and they can also combine studies at basic and upper secondary level. There are, in principle, no entrance requirements or leaving examinations.

3.3.3.
Basic adult education confers knowledge and skills equivalent to those conferred by the compulsory school. Basic adult education is a right for the citizen and is mandatory for the municipalities.

3.3.4.
Upper secondary adult education confers knowledge and skills equivalent to those conferred by youth education at upper secondary level. It can offer the same programmes and subjects (with the exception of aesthetic subjects and sports) as the upper secondary school. Adults do not have an automatic right to upper secondary education, but the municipalities are obliged to make an effort to provide opportunities corresponding to demand and individual needs. The time schedules applied in the national programmes within the youth sector apply as a guiding principle to upper secondary adult education.

3.3.5.
The purpose of supplementary adult education is to provide vocational courses which are not available in the youth sector. These courses lead to higher professional competence or to competence in a new profession.

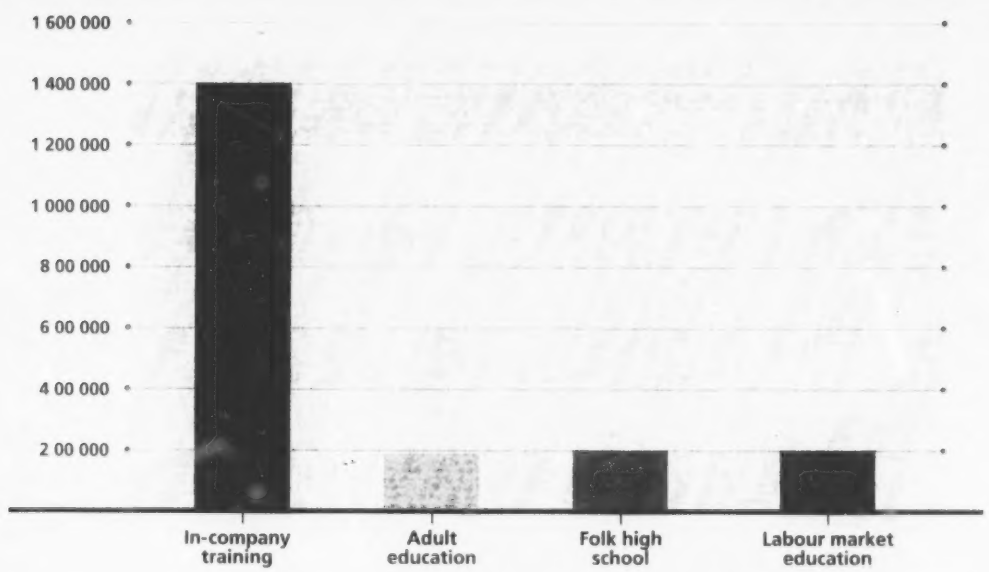
3.3.6.
The municipalities are obliged to provide basic Swedish language instruction for adult immigrants (see paragraph 2.2.15). In the past the Swedish for immigrants (SFI) programme usually comprised a total of 525 hours. In recent years, however, the government has introduced a more flexible system adapted to the needs of the learner. Thus, in many cases the provision of teaching hours is lower, while extra teaching resources are directed towards weak language learners with a low level of education.

3.3.7.
As a supplement to municipal adult education there are two national schools for adults (see paragraphs 2.2.16 to 2.2.18). Instruction in these schools is partly by correspondence. Participants are recruited from all over the country and the schools cater primarily for students who for various reasons are unable to attend ordinary courses. These schools are run by the State. Formal education is widely distributed over the country and distance education has been regarded as a supplementary form of distribution and not as a special system.

3.3.8.
The introduction of new information technology, more flexible hours at work and the need for educational upgrading of the work force has influenced the government to launch a nation-wide development programme to promote new forms of distance education in the early 1990s. Furthermore, mention should be made of the important role played by the Swedish Educational Broadcasting Corporation (*Utbildningsradion*) which over a period of more than two decades has produced both credit and non-credit courses.

3.3.9.
The figure below gives information on the extent of participation in continuing vocational training for the whole labour force. The figures for 1995 and 1996 will probably be higher due to a significant decrease in personnel training in 1993.

Figure 17. **Participation in continuing vocational training and other forms of adult education, 1993**



SOURCE: *MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE 1994.*

3.3.10.
Figures from the fiscal years 1991/92 and 1993/94, show that approximately 3 million people participated in some form of CVT of varying duration. Most in-company training consists of courses ranging from 3 to 5 days while municipal adult education is often full-time. More than 1.3 million people have participated in in-company training, i.e. education paid for by the employer. This amounts to 28 % of the total labour force of 3.9 million people. This form of training has most relevance to their present job. Folk high schools have about 180 000 participants, in their long and short courses. Due to high unemployment, popular education also provides courses for unemployed persons. These measures have encompassed well over 10 000 persons in short courses. In employment training (labour market education) there were 168 000 participants during the fiscal year 1993/94.

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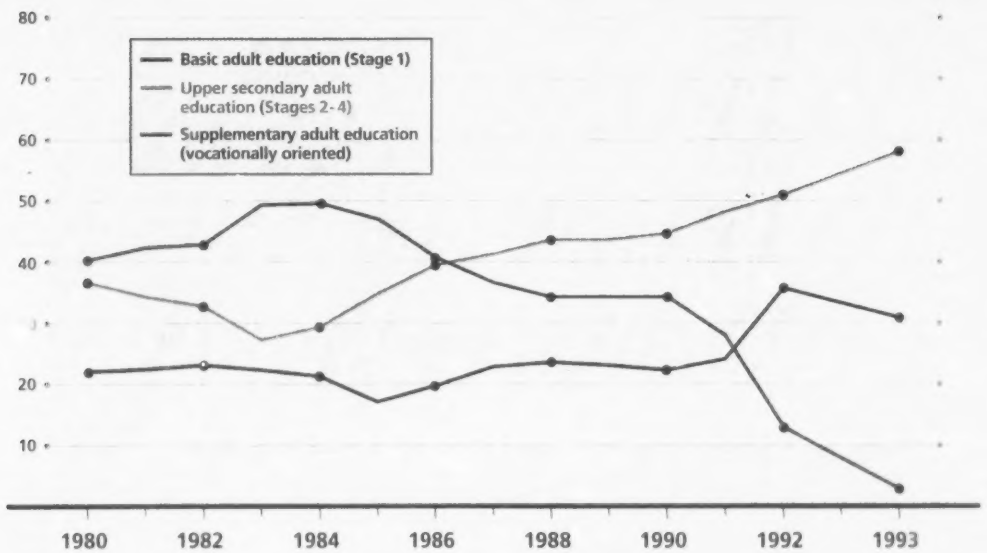
Municipal adult education

3.3.11.
Municipal adult education (*komvux*) at upper secondary level encompassed some 141 000 new students in a single week in autumn 1993. Over the whole school year the number of student was greater. The proportion of studies corresponding to compulsory school amounted to 27 %. Approximately 66 % participated in studies corresponding to the upper secondary school and 7 % in supplementary (advanced) education. The total number of new *komvux* students during the academic year 1994/95, amounted to more than 195 000. It is important to make a distinction between individuals and course participants, since an individual may participate in one or more courses.

Figure18. **New enrolments in municipal adult education by type of course, autumn 1980-93, in %**



SOURCE STATISTICS SWEDEN 1995. YEARBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.

3.3.12.
It is interesting to observe that although *komvux* is expanding, there has been a considerable drop in enrolments in vocational courses. The educational background of *komvux* students has been relatively stable during the last few years. In municipal adult education, the largest group of participants by level of education is those with compulsory education. Their share (about 30 %) has remained stable over the years. The proportion of students with short upper secondary education has decreased during the last few years, while the proportion of students with longer education has increased. In municipal adult education the proportion of immigrants was 28 % in 1993. The share is greater in adult education corresponding to compulsory education (56 %). The share of women in municipal adult education was 62 %.

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Labour market policies and employment training

3.3.13.
Employment training is primarily intended to help unemployed people and hard-to-place job seekers lacking occupational skills. The training is provided by the public employment service and is expected to lead to permanent employment. The training programme is primarily vocational, but it can also include introductory and general theoretical instruction as a necessary adjunct of vocational training. During the last few years of high unemployment, training in Sweden has been increasingly oriented towards applicants with both occupational experience and a relatively good educational background – a shift in priority from risk groups to resource groups. As a rule, access to employment training is conditional on current or imminent unemployment. In addition the applicant must be at least 20 years of age and registered with the public employment service as a job seeker. Participants receive tuition and training allowances. The allowances are paid at the same rate as unemployment insurance compensation in the case of those entitled to such benefits.

3.3.14.
Employment training forms part of an active labour market policy aimed at reducing unemployment, promoting economic growth and supporting disadvantaged groups. It primarily takes the form of courses purchased by a county labour board or an employment office. However, in some cases training allowances are granted to persons who attend other courses, e.g. within municipal adult education or at the upper secondary school. County labour boards and employment offices plan their purchase of employment training with reference to the needs of the labour market and their knowledge as to which job-seekers have difficulty finding work. Training lasts, on average, for about 20 weeks, usually 40 hours per week.

3.3.15.
Employment training is mainly vocationally oriented. From 1 July 1997 the adult education initiative programme *(kunskapslyftet)* operates for a five-year period. Adults missing a complete upper secondary education will get the opportunity to study core subjects at upper secondary level with a special education grant corresponding to their unemployment allowances. Priority will be given to unemployed adults, but employees with only a short education can be admitted if there are student places. It will be possible to combine vocational and theoretical subjects. Adult education at compulsory school level will also be considered.

3.3.16.
Since January 1994, County Labour Market Boards and employment offices have been required by law to buy employment training courses in accordance with the Public Procurement Act which came into force as a result of the agreement over the European Economic Area. They can purchase training from the Employment Training Group (*AMU*; a State-owned company) or other tendering companies, municipally commissioned education companies, higher education establishments and other organisations. A dramatic shift in the providers' organisational structure has taken place during the last decade giving more scope for general educational upgrading at the cost of traditional vocational training. Training activities focus mainly on manufacturing industry, caring services and office/administrative occupations. Parliament and government allocate funds for labour market policy programmes through the national budget. One third of this is applied to employment training.

3.3.17.
The National Labour Market Board distributes these funds to the 21 county labour market boards with reference to labour market conditions in the various counties. The Board also issues general guidelines and follows up activities in the counties. Within the counties, the county labour market boards are responsible for labour market activities. A part of the funding for labour market policy programmes goes to the employment offices, which decide whether applicants meet the requirements for employment training and help them to choose a suitable programme.

The *AMU* centres offer employment training courses to semi-skilled workers, skilled workers and unemployed persons as well as courses introducing young people to the labour market. The training courses are regulated in the Employment Training Ordinance of 1987 and are based upon very close collaboration between the social partners. Due to fundamental transformation of the market for training enterprises, the *AMU* centres have been significantly reduced in numbers over the last 10 years. During 1996 the *AMU* team met a very tough competitive situation with respect to other providers such as training companies and municipal adult education. Furthermore, the government announced that the regional labour market boards should reduce the level of vocational training and give higher priorities to employment development schemes.

Overview of labour market training programmes

3.3.18.
To accomplish the objectives of labour market policy, a variety of different programmes is used. The most important are job placement services and programmes that influence labour supply, encourage demand for labour and generate employment for jobless and occupationally handicapped people. In addition, there are unemployment insurance programmes whose purpose is to compensate jobless individuals for lost income.

Sizeable investments are being made in fields other than labour market policy to counteract the negative effects of joblessness. One important way of combating higher unemployment, while raising the skills level in the labour force, is to operate various skill-enhancement programmes as part of government educational policy. The government is expanding the number of openings in the higher education system and upper secondary schools, as well as in other alternatives such as the municipal adult education system and the folk high schools (mainly small and residential). Overall, more than 90 000 new openings were added in these educational programmes during 1995/96.

Programmes to improve the match between jobs and job-seekers

3.3.19.
The Employment Service, which has access to the whole arsenal of labour market programmes, is the fundamental instrument of government labour market policy. Its main tasks are job placement and vocational counselling. Its primary purpose is to create a closer fit between labour supply and demand. A range of instruments developed within the Employment Service are intended to improve the matching process. These include job clubs and similar activation programmes, designed to give job seekers the requisite knowledge and self-confidence to track down job vacancies

themselves. There have also been efforts aimed at expanding and raising the quality of the Service's contacts with companies.

The work of the Employment Service has been computerised to, among other things, improve information services related to job vacancies. The Employment Service has moved increasingly toward management by objectives and decentralisation. It has shifted many employees from administration to job placement work. It has a large share of the job placement market and handles sizeable volumes of vacancies and job seekers. During 1994 about 40 % of all job vacancies in Sweden were reported to the Service.

Programmes to encourage demand for labour and generate employment

3.3.20.
The purpose of these programmes is to maintain the demand for labour during periods of weak demand. They also give unemployed individuals workplace experience that can make job placement in the regular market easier or can form the basis for choosing an occupation or training programme. Programmes to encourage demand for labour and generate employment were previously of minor importance in Sweden, but today they dominate labour market policy programmes. They can be targeted to individuals or companies.

Programmes aimed at supporting individuals

3.3.21.
The employment development (*Arbetslivsutvekling - ALU*) programme was introduced in 1993. It aims to take advantage of the desire of unemployed persons for activity and personal development, as well as to make it easier for them to return to the regular labour market. In addition, *ALU* prevents people from exhausting their unemployment benefits, because they qualify for a new period of benefits after completing the programme.

ALU projects may not compete with tasks normally performed in the regular labour market. The government covers the entire cost, and participants receive benefits equivalent to those they would otherwise receive while unemployed. Maximum enrolment is for six months. The average monthly participation in *ALU* during the activity year 1995/96 was 48 200 participants. In total over 200 000 participants were enrolled during 1995/96 at a total cost of SEK 8 billion.

Table 12. **Number of participants in employment development (ALU), by age and sex, 1995/96**

Age	Men	Women	Total
<19	98	69	167
20-24	9 267	5 856	15 123
25-34	14 243	11 348	25 591
35-44	32 632	29 924	61 296
45-54	26 737	21 395	48 132
55-60	24 857	18 387	43 244
61+	4 262	2 847	7 109
Total	**112 096**	**89 196**	**201 292**

SOURCE: **NATIONAL LABOUR MARKET BOARD 1997. RAPPORT APRA 1997:2.**

3.3.22.
Start-up grants (*starta eget bidrag*) have become an increasingly important programme in recent years. They are available to people who are unemployed or at risk of losing their jobs, so that they can support themselves initially while establishing their own new business. Applicants must present a viable business plan. During 1995/96, 29 610 individuals, more men than women, received this grant. It is equivalent to the benefit that would otherwise have been paid from an unemployment insurance fund, but it can also be provided to people who are not entitled to such benefits. It is normally payable for six months but can be extended for a longer period.

3.3.23.
Workplace introduction (*arbetsplatsintroduktion*) is a new programme that began in July 1995. It replaces a number of older programmes that provided traineeships for young people, immigrants and graduates.

Table 13. **New enrolments in workplace introduction, 1991/92 to 1995/96**

Category	Participants	Fiscal years				
		1991/92	**1992/93**	**1993/94**	**1994/95**	**1995/96**
Youth practice	Total	30 542	139 414	145 572	92 266	2 267
	of whom					
	under 25	97.50%	98.90%	99.40%	99.10%	98.90%
	foreigners	3.90%	5.40%	5.60%	5.10%	3.00%
Academic practice	Total			1 765	2 654	
	of whom					
	under 25			0.50%	4,70%	
	foreigners			4.10%	4.10%	
Immigrant practice	Total			2	7 873	
	of whom					
	under 25			0.0%	14.40%	
	foreigners			100.00%	97.20%	
Youth introduction	Total				10 388	
	of whom					
	under 25				99.70%	
	foreigners				7.20%	
Workplace introduction	Total					141 611
	of whom					
	under 25					40.00%
	foreigners					19.60%
Total	**Total**	**30 542**	**139 414**	**147 339**	**113 181**	**143 878**
	of whom					
	under 25	**97.50%**	**98.90%**	**98.20%**	**91.00%**	**40.90%**
	foreigners	**3.90%**	**5.40%**	**5.60%**	**11.70%**	**19.40%**

The blank spaces result from the introduction, or abolition, of different systems during the period

SOURCE: ***NATIONAL LABOUR MARKET BOARD 1997. RAPPORT APRA 1997:2.***

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Unemployed people who are found to need a period of workplace training, and who cannot be given an ordinary job or be accommodated in another suitable programme, may train for up to six months in the business or public sector. For occupationally handicapped youth, this period may be extended. During this traineeship, participants receive workplace introduction counselling services and practical vocational training.

The workplace introduction programme is targeted at unemployed people aged 20 or over. However, those under 25 may participate in the programme providing the employer undertakes to give them a regular job for at least another six months after the traineeship. Municipal, government and non-profit organisations are exempt from this requirement.

Participants in the workplace introduction programme receive a training grant equivalent to the unemployment compensation they would otherwise be entitled to.

In total, this measure enrolled almost 144 000 participants during 1995/96, illustrated in the Table 13.

3.3.24.
Recruitment subsidies (*rekryteringsbidrag*), which have existed since 1984, are primarily intended to facilitate employment in the private sector. This programme can be used to accelerate the hiring process and influence an employer's choice of job seekers.

Computer workshops (*datortek*) are currently being established throughout Sweden by municipal governments and employment service offices. Their purpose is to give unemployed youth aged 20 to 24 an opportunity to familiarise themselves with modern information technology. These young people are also encouraged to apply for jobs or obtain information on training programmes.

Contracted workplace job introduction (*avtalad arbetsplatsintroduktion*) in the business sector is a programme offered to unemployed young people aged 18 to 19. It has, however, diminished in importance in recent years. These jobs are based on agreements between employer and employee organisations, and their purpose is to give unemployed youngsters work experience. Employers receive public grants covering a portion of their wage costs for six months.

Programmes aimed at companies

3.3.25
Educational leave replacements (*utbildningsvikariat*) have the dual purpose of training existing employees and giving temporary jobs to unemployed persons. The programme entitles an employer to pay reduced social welfare contributions providing a substitute referred by the employment service is employed to replace a regular employee away on educational leave.

Table 14. **New enrolments in educational leave replacements 1995/96**

Age	Men	Women	Total
<19	422	1 444	1 866
20-24	3 194	9 570	12 764
25-34	3 499	10 289	13 788
35-44	1 659	6 163	7 822
45-54	934	3 968	4 902
55-60	175	717	892
61+	31	118	149
	9 914	**32 269**	**42 183**

SOURCE ***NATIONAL LABOUR MARKET BOARD 1997. RAPPORT APRA 1997:2.***

3.3.26.
The employment service can also apply its funds to encouraging urgently needed training for established employees, especially in small and medium-sized companies. This training can be aimed at preventing lay-off or personnel cuts or at helping to adjust the skills of employees in connection with technical changes or changes in work organisation. Training is the employer's responsibility and can take place within the company or on the premises of an outside provider. The employer continues to pay the employees' wages during training. In recent years the number of persons taking part in corporate personnel training has amounted to 28 000, 1.23 % of the labour force, and the average duration of training has been about 200 hours.

Employment training

3.3.27.
Some 183 000 persons, or about 4.7 % of the labour force, received some form of employment training or education during the year 1995/96. Only 9 % of them attended education and training within the regular education system (upper secondary schools). About half of the participants were women and a quarter were immigrants. Around 15 % were occupationally handicapped. Rather less than half of all employment trainees have received no more than nine years compulsory schooling and the same number have attended upper secondary school. Most people who begin employment training also complete it. For many years about 70 % of all students in vocational courses were able to find jobs within six months of completing their studies. In the current employment situation, this figure has fallen to around 25 %. Ordinary education has increased during the last few years. About 35 % of the total in employment training attended such courses in the fiscal year 1992/93. We also saw a sharp rise in employment training in the fiscal year 1990/91 due to the economic recession.

3.3.28.
A more recent overview illustrates the peak of 1991/92 followed by a marked decrease in provision, see figure below.

Figure 19. **Average number of participants in employment training, 1981/82 to 1993/94**

SOURCE: *STATISTICS SWEDEN, YEARBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS 1995 AND AMS.*

3.3.29.
Another interesting trend is that employment training has shifted its focus by giving higher priorities to middle-aged or older employees with relatively good education at the cost of a reduction in young employees or groups with low level education.

Table 15. **Participants in employment training by age group, as % of total, budget years 1989/90 to 1993/94**

Age	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94
< 24	32	32	36	28	13
25 - 34	37	36	34	38	42
35 - 44	22	22	20	22	27
45+	9	10	10	12	18
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

SOURCE: *STATISTICS SWEDEN, YEARBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS 1995 AND AMS.*

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Table 16. **Education background (by %) of those beginning employment training in budget years 1991/92 to 1995/96**

Fiscal year	Compulsory school		Secondary school		Post secondary school	
	< 9 years	9 years	2 years or less	>2 years	2 years or less	>2 years
1991/92	8	32	36	16	3	5
1992/93	8	29	37	17	3	6
1993/94	7	24	38	19	4	8
1994/95	6	23	38	21	4	8
1995/96	6	22	37	22	4	9

SOURCE: ***NATIONAL LABOUR MARKET BOARD 1997. RAPPORT APRA 1997:2.***

This development reflects a dilemma in modern labour market policies aiming at full employment. Employability is today increasingly related to education level, vocational background and social competence. A majority of the low level educated part of the labour force needs fundamental educational renewal at very high cost to society. Other groups with a better educational position might adapt and modernise their employability with less educational intervention.

Giving priority to groups that can more easily attain a good position on the labour market will, however, widen education gaps in society. Employment training also shows an emerging trend in catering for better educated students. Swedish education policies generally underline the importance of the role of equity and learning rights for all citizens. To a large extent, however, this policy is channelled through popular adult education and basic adult education in the system of municipal adult education.

In employment training as well as in municipal adult education, a large proportion of participants have attended school only to the compulsory minimum level. In times of rising unemployment, persons with least education are the first to become unemployed. It is therefore not surprising that the proportion of participants with a low level of education is high. Within popular education almost half of the participants have an education below upper secondary level. This reflects the figures in municipal adult education, and the pattern is even more pronounced in folk high schools.

3.3.30.

Another fundamental transformation in employment training concerns the institutional change in type of providers for retraining courses purchased by the Employment Service. The position of the *AMUGruppen* (Amu-Group limited), the State-owned competence corporation, has been successively weakened. First it was exposed to competition from course providers in the formal system of education; later on it became quite obvious that training enterprises and private competence corporations had dramatically increased their share of customised employment training purchased by the regional labour market boards.

Table 17. **Participants in purchased employment training, by different providers as % of total, 1989/90 to 1993/94**

Providers	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94
AmuGruppenn	74	69	55	52	41
Municipal adult education (basic)	2	4	5	5	3
Upper secondary education	6	4	5	3	3
Municipal adult education (upper secondary)	8	8	10	9	7
Folk high school	1	2	2	3	2
Universities or university colleges	1	1	1	<1	<1
Adult education associations	1	2	4	5	6
Training companies	7	9	18	22	37
Other providers	<1	<1	<1	<1	<1
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

SOURCE: ***STATISTICS SWEDEN, YEARBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS 1995.***

The privately owned training companies strengthened their position during 1994/95 and 1995/96 by increasing their share of participants to 45 % and 48 % respectively, at the cost of a slight decrease for formal adult education and the *AMUGruppen*.

3.3.31.
The current condition and future prospects of the Swedish employment training system are very uncertain, not least because of financial and organisational crises. This stems partly from major changes in the competence market, with increasing competition from other training enterprises and from the formal adult education system providing general subject and formal upgrading at a lower cost than vocationally based courses. In addition, the current situation is determined by governmental policies on the balance between vocationally oriented courses and more extensive workplace learning schemes.

Recently, the government has decided that the major purchaser of employment training measures, the National Labour Market Board with its regional offices should heavily increase working life development schemes *(arbetslivsutveckling, ALU)* at the expense of vocational training. The *AMUGruppen* has to strike a balance between market and State interests.

3.3.32.
The employers' and the employees' organisations have set up funds for certain measures for competence development for redundant employees or employees at risk of redundancy. *Trygghetsrådet SAF-LO* (for blue collar workers in private companies), *Trygghetsrådet* (for professionals in private companies) and *Trygghetsstiftelsen* (for public employees) are three of the main funds for different labour market sectors.

In-company training (ICT)

3.3.33.
In-company training provided by companies and public authorities expanded faster than any other form of adult education during the 1980s. In spring 1992 roughly 1.5 million employees or 35 % of the total number of employees received some form of in-house training. The participation rate in in-company training has almost doubled over the last decade. The level of access and participation dropped significantly during 1993, but by 1995 it had been restored to above its former level (42 %). Statistics for the first half of 1997 show that 38 % of Swedish employees participate in in-company training activities, that is roughly 1.5 million employees.

Table 18. Participants in ICT in thousands and as % of employees

Year	Numbers (1 000)	Share (%)
1986	969	23
1987	1 110	26
1989	1 425	32
1990	1 493	33
1992	1 503	34
1993	926	23
1994	1 553	38
1995	1 699	42
1996	1 609	40
1997	1 513	38

SOURCE *STATISTICS SWEDEN 1995, YEARBOOK OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS AND STATISTISKA MEDDELANDEN U 39 SM 9701.*

An average person spent 3 % of their working hours in education and training. Civil servants and salaried employees, the middle-aged, full-time employed and women were groups above the average in terms of education and training.

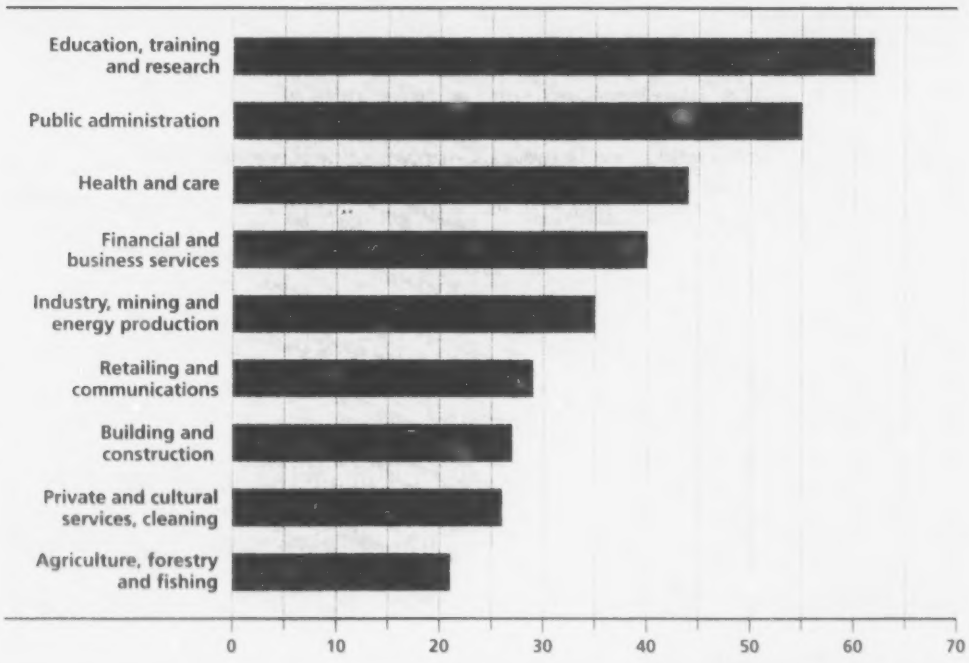
Female employees and employees with Swedish citizenship participated to a greater extent in in-company training than male employees and employees with non-Swedish citizenship.. This is due to the fact that immigrants often work in those sectors with the least training. There has been a significant increase in participation rates in 1994 and 1995, reaching 46 % for males and 45 % for females in 1995 in comparison with 22 and 34 % for non-Nordic citizens.

3.3.34.
In-company training (ICT), by definition, is financed by employers. To a great extent, it takes place during working hours, but there are also cases of training being financed or otherwise supported by employers outside working hours. Both the proportion of employees receiving such training and the scope of the training itself is commensurate with employees' educational and salary levels. Public sector employees in relative terms are offered more training than private employees, women are offered more education than men, and white collar workers more than blue collar workers.

3.3.35.
In-company training is organised partly by companies and administrative authorities, but it has also generated a market for education in which municipalities, through their schools, the *AMUGruppen*, universities and university colleges as well as private educational consultants are active. There is no legislation governing entitlement to or influence on this type of education. Decisions relating to in-company training are made by the employer, but the trade unions are able to exert various degrees of influence.

3.3.36.
In-company training is unevenly distributed within the labour force. Both the proportion of employees receiving adult education, and the scope of the education itself are commensurate with employees' educational and salary levels. In the enterprise sector, the biggest investments in in-company training are made by relatively large and profitable concerns in expanding industries. Training is also more widespread in services than in manufacturing industry. This in turn leads to great regional differences in expenditure.

Figure 20. **Percentage of employees participating in ICT in various sectors, first half of 1997**



SOURCE: ***STATISTICS SWEDEN 1997. STATISTISKA MEDDELANDEN U 39 SM 9701.***

The following table expresses by level of education the percentage of in-company training each group has received. Those with higher education received more training than those with less education. This pattern has not changed over the years. In 1995, 28 % of employees with no more than compulsory education participated in ICT, while the figures for those educated at upper secondary level

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and higher were 39 % and 60 % respectively. The surprising decrease in 1993 seems to be more of an exception than the rule. All in all, ICT is developing into a major form of continuing vocational training in Sweden.

Table 19. **Participation in in-company training by level of education, as % of the age group (16-64 years), 1986 to 1994**

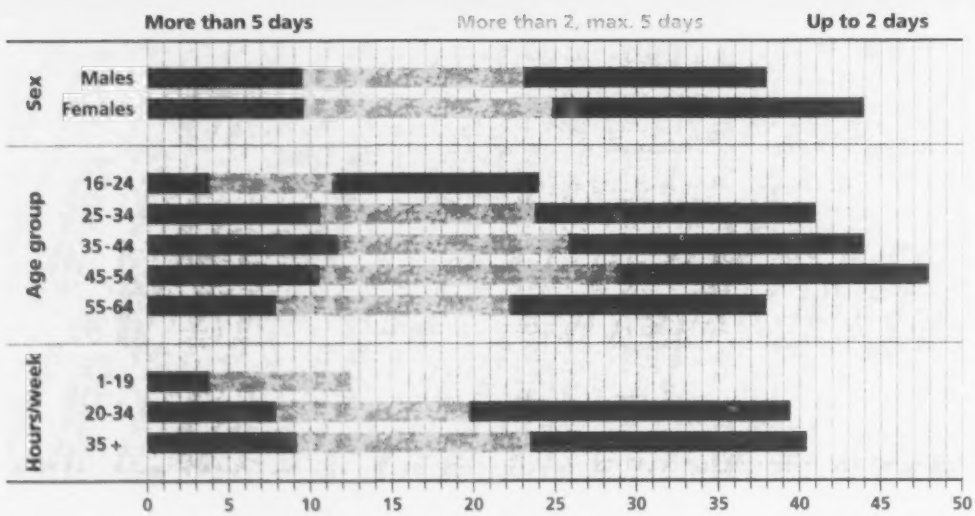
Education level	1986	1987	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Compulsory education	14	16	18	19	n.a.	21	14	25
Upper secondary school 2 years or less	22	24	28	29	n.a.	34	22	36
Upper secondary school more than 2 years	29	31	38	37	n.a.	35	21	35

n.a.: not available.

SOURCE: **STATISTICS SWEDEN, 1995 B.**

3.3.37.
Access to in-company training is more influenced by sectors of the labour market than by age, sex or working hours (see Figure 21, below).

Figure 21. **Length of training by age, gender and by number of working hours in %, 1995**



SOURCE: **STATISTICS SWEDEN, 1995 B.**

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Table 20. ICT for the total labour market by age group

	First six month 1997				Change			
	Total employed	Those in training			1995-97		1996-97	
Age	1 000	1 000	%	Days per trainee	%	Days per trainee	%	Days per trainee
16-24	452	109	24	5.2	0	-1.1	-1	-0.6
25-34	972	338	35	7.1	-7	-0.9	-3	-0.2
35-44	958	397	41	7.8	-4	0.0	-2	1.5
45-54	1 079	471	44	5.8	-4	0.3	-2	0.6
55-64	566	197	35	4.6	-3	-0.2	-1	-0.6
Total	**4 027**	**1 513**	**38**	**6.4**	**-4**	**-0.3**	**-2**	**0.4**

SOURCE **STATISTICS SWEDEN, 1995 B.**

In-company training by size of enterprise

3.3.38.
Table 21 shows the share of employees participating in in-company training by size of enterprise. The bigger the enterprise, the more training the employees receive. More people participate and the duration of the training is longer in the larger companies. The self-employed are the group participating least in in-company training in terms of both the number and length of opportunities.

Table 21. In-company training by size of enterprise, first half of 1996

Size of workplace	Share receiving 0.1 to 5 days (%)		Share receiving more than 5 days (%)		Total (1 000)	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<9,	82	82	18	18	110	94
10 - 49	83	81	17	19	186	232
50 - 99	76	76	24	24	84	85
100 - 249	73	79	27	21	104	72
250 - 499	76	84	24	16	67	44
500 - 999	78	81	22	19	67	54
1000	76	75	24	25	177	214
Unknown	80	78	20	22	5	13
Total	**79**		**21**		**1 609**	

SOURCE **STATISTICS SWEDEN, 1997, STATISTISKA MEDDELANDEN, U 39 SM 9701.**

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The provision of in-company training has increased substantially in the last few years. Due to the economic recession, it decreased substantially in 1993 but increased to its former level in 1994. Municipal adult education has an opposite curve with peaks in the number of persons in 1987/88 and again in the last few years. There are marked variations in the supply of in-company training (ICT) between the public sector with the highest provision, and the traditional sectors and SMEs with the lowest supply of training options.

3.3.39.
There are, as indicated earlier, very few collective agreements concerning ICT. One exception is teaching, where ICT is regulated by law and in collective agreements. Thus 49 % of employees in pedagogical professions receive in-service training, which is by far the highest figure. Other occupational/professional groups where a large number receive training are health and child care personnel and white collar professions. Occupations with the least training are cleaning, driving and painting.

Providers of vocational training or corporate learning

3.3.40.
Providers of CVT can be subdivided into public institutions, trade unions, employers' associations, private enterprises and training companies. As mentioned earlier, Sweden has a large number of training companies. A number of these offer not only education, but also consultancy and technology services. There are also training institutes providing education for manual workers. Some training companies are very much concerned with the training of senior executives.

The table below illustrates the provision by different suppliers as a percentage of the total number of participants in ICT.

Table 22. **Suppliers of in-company training as % of total number of participants, first half of 1997**

The employing corporation	68.0
Other corporation	21.0
Higher education	2.0
Trade unions	1.0
Interest organisations	1.6
Study associations	1.5
Others	1.4
Komvux	0.7
Governmental agencies	0.5
AmuGruppen	0.4
Folk high schools	0.2

SOURCE **STATISTICS SWEDEN 1997. STATISTISKA MEDDELANDEN U 39 SM 9701.**

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Educational institutions account for a relatively small share of the total volume of training activities. Various surveys have indicated that only around 20 % is provided by external training companies.

Trade unions

3.3.41.
Sweden's employee organisations, the Swedish Trade Union Confederation (*LO*), the Swedish Confederation of Professional Employees (*TCO*) and the Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations (*SACO*), have extensive study programmes of their own. These are designed to give union members a solid background in union affairs and other social areas. They also supply trained union officials at local, regional and national levels. Most courses are residential and last one or two weeks, but some last for up to six months. There are no government subsidies for these programmes.

Forms of arrangements for inter-company provision of CVT

3.3.42.
Various federations of employers and different federations/organisations of employees have together, or individually, created institutes for pursuing and providing education. Examples include the Institute for Industrial Management, the Swedish Management Group and the Council for Education of Salaried Employees.

New initiatives to broaden higher education

3.3.43.
It is a question of definition whether the system of higher education should be included in CVT models. Firstly higher education aims at education support and certification of certain professions, and additional educational steps in this context might be labelled continuing professional education or continuing higher education. Excluding degree programmes at undergraduate level and research training components in the system of higher education, examples of CVT could be picked from the wide provision of shorter courses used for occupational upgrading. Other examples are shorter vocational programmes for technicians *(yrkesteknisk högskoleutbildning, YTH)*.

Even if vocationally oriented study programmes at higher education level leading to academic professions (civil engineers, medical doctors, dentists, psychologists, social workers, etc.) are excluded, there are still various models of continuing vocational education. Firstly, it is quite obvious that the broad provision of shorter or 'one-off' courses is meeting the need for continuing vocational education for a variety of adults. Secondly, higher technical vocational education, introduced in the early 1970s, represents another form of CVT. The third form is a newly started programme for supplying qualified vocationally oriented higher education.

3.3.44.
In the late 1960s, a number of political initiatives were taken to broaden social recruitment to higher education e.g. widened admission and decentralisation in the provision of courses and programmes. Special attention was paid to new vocationally oriented courses of a sandwich character. New options for distance education were another instrument used, in addition to the creation of shorter vocational programmes for technicians. Today, the need for a new expansion of higher education opportunities is an idea shared by the major political parties in Parliament *(Riksdagen)*. The former government launched an expansion plan for higher education. Furthermore, a governmental commission has analysed the need for continuous vocational training at higher education level, and made suggestions such as increasing enrolment in higher education from 30 % to 50 % of the population, especially among young people. The experimental scheme started on this basis more limited in size and ambitions.

3.3.45.
A new experiment with advanced vocational education *(kvalificerad yrkesutbildning)* at higher education level has been launched by the government (Bill.1995/96:145). In total 1 700 new student places were introduced during 1996 in order to gain experience from different providers, educational models and new programmes. The purpose of this developmental approach was to analyse and assess the needs and interests of employers and educational providers. The government gives priority to models and solutions that will promote interest in science and technology among women. The general purpose of this educational organisation is to deepen the theoretical and practical knowledge needed in order to cope with the skill requirements of both autonomy and teamwork reflected in a modern and integrated work organisation. A task force appointed by the Ministry of Education and Science will monitor and assess the progress of this experiment in advanced vocational education at post-secondary level.

3.3.46.
The programme is a three semester long university education with a total of 60 points (one week's study equals 1 point). The aim is to give broader and deeper knowledge within a vocational area. The eligibility requirements are a minimum of four years of work within the actual occupational sector after having completed upper secondary vocational education. Persons lacking upper secondary education should have six years of work experience. The first part of higher technical vocational education is spent on basic subjects, such as Swedish, mathematics, physics, chemistry and computers. Those who have not studied for some time are advised to prepare themselves by studying mathematics for one term at a municipal adult education course. The teaching of vocational subjects at higher technical vocational education is carried out by people from the same sector of the labour market. Study visits and projects are important parts of the education.

Concluding comments on access to, and provision of, CVT

3.3.47.
Basic or initial vocational education is provided at upper secondary level. It is not compulsory in theory, but nowadays it is a necessary, but not always sufficient, condition for future employment. Very few young people without upper secondary education will be able to compete in the labour market of today and tomorrow. Continuing vocational training is supplied by public adult education, through employment training as part of labour market policies and also in various forms of in-company training and personnel education. Despite such a broad provision of adult learning options, there is still a significant social bias in access. People with higher education are more generously treated than individuals with little or no education after formal schooling. The provision of in-company training also varies between different sectors of the labour market and decreases for immigrants and employees with part-time jobs.

Chapter IV Regulatory and financial framework

4.1. Admission to vocational education and training

Access to the public school system for adults

4.1.1.
The School Act states that the municipalities are obliged to make an effort to provide upper secondary adult education and supplementary adult education corresponding to demand and individual needs. These courses are free of charge and funded out of taxes. To be eligible for courses within upper secondary adult education and supplementary vocational education, an applicant must be lacking formally or informally the knowledge which the course is meant to provide as well as fulfilling the prerequisites to keep up with the education. If there are more applicants than places on a course, priority is given to those in need of the education for planned or ongoing activities relating to an occupation or those who are intending to enter a profession. As for supplementary adult education based on a completed upper secondary education or equivalent in municipal adult education, the grades achieved will be the main criteria.

National distance schools for adults

4.1.2.
The board of each school decides on which courses are provided and which students will be accepted. The courses are free and funded out of taxes. The selection procedure is equivalent to that for municipal adult education.

Higher education

4.1.3.
To be admitted to higher education programmes in Sweden, a student must first fulfil the general admission requirements which are common to all study programmes, and then meet the special admission requirements which may be imposed on applicants to a particular study programme or course. The general admission requirements are completion of a national programme at an upper secondary school or another equivalent course within the Swedish educational system. A person can also fulfil these requirements by being at least 25 years old, having a record of at least four years of work experience, and possessing a knowledge of the Swedish and English languages equivalent to that from a completed national programme in the upper secondary school. To enter most study programmes and courses, a person must also fulfil special admission requirements, i.e. a student must have upper secondary level knowledge of the specific subjects essential to the study programme or course. All education is free of charge for the student.

Employment training

4.1.4.
Employment training is mainly financed by government appropriations to labour market policy programmes through the national budget. Access to employment training is conditional on current or imminent unemployment; in addition an applicant must be at least 20 years old and registered with the public employment service as a job-seeker. Tuition is free of charge for the participants.

Commissioned education

4.1.5.
The educational activities provided within commissioned education must be fully paid for by the employer and must contain no State subsidy element; nor may commissioned education detract from the availability or development of normal educational activities. Accordingly, it is the employer, who, in agreement with the employee and also to some extent with the trade union, decides who will attend.

Folk high schools

4.1.6.
Folk high schools may receive State subsidies. The rules state that activities aiming to reduce inequalities in education and to raise the level of education in society shall be a priority and that such activities small be arranged for less advantaged groups. Long-term courses, mainly for those lacking lower secondary or upper secondary schooling, are organised annually and account for 15 % of all courses. Thus there is complete liberty for governors of folk high schools to decide the emphasis and content of their activities themselves. There are no curricula or syllabuses formulated by external parties, nor are any certificates issued. All schools organise long-term as well as short-term courses and many schools offer special courses in a particular subject area, e.g. drama, music, immigrant studies or youth leadership. Certain courses confer eligibility for post-secondary education. Candidates for these courses in folk high school must be at least 18 years old and have completed compulsory school or its equivalent. Tuition is free of charge, but students pay for their own board and lodging.

4.2. Administrative and regulatory arrangements

Laws concerning vocational education and training

4.2.1.
As indicated in earlier chapters, vocational education and training in Sweden is based on legislation from both the Ministry of Education and Science and the Ministry of Labour. The Ministry of Education and Science is responsible for supplementary courses and further vocational training or higher technical education, and the Ministry of Labour for the continuing training of unemployed people or people at risk of becoming unemployed.

Ministry of Education and Science

4.2.2.
There is no specific legislation from the Ministry of Education and Science concerning VET. As mentioned earlier, VET in the terms of our definition is found in many different forms within the Swedish education system. The most important legal arrangements concerning education are presented below.

4.2.3.
The School Act *(skollagen 1985:1100)* and the Municipal Adult Education Ordinance *(förordningen 1992:403 om kommunal vuxenutbildning)* are the legal basis for continuing vocational training (CVT) in the public school system for adults. The curriculum for upper secondary schools *(Lpf 94)* sets out the basic values of the

education provided and its tasks, and provides goals and guidelines. Education is organised in the form of separate courses and the syllabus states the aim and goals of the course and the minimum knowledge to be attained by pupils on completion.

Education in the national distance schools for adults is regulated under the National Schools for Adults Act *(lagen 1991:1108 om statens skolor för vuxna)* and the Ordinance *(förordningen 1992:601 om statens skolor för vuxna)*. The schools, which are run by the State, supplement municipal adult education by offering basically the same kind of education in the form of distance education.

4.2.4.
The Higher Education Act *(högskolelagen 1992:1434)* and the Higher Education Ordinance *(högskoleförordningen 1993:100)* are the legal basis for CVT at universities and university colleges run by the State, municipalities or county councils. Students are able to choose freely their study route and to combine different subject courses into a degree. For study intended to lead to a degree, courses may be combined to form an educational programme, if the university or university college wishes. The requirements for various courses of study are set out in the Degree Ordinance. All courses and educational programmes have to follow curricula established by the individual university or university college.

The Degree Ordinance attached to the Higher Education Ordinance states the kinds of degree available and also the specific demands that have to be fulfilled to receive a degree. The government can through a law from 1993 *(lagen 1993:792 om tillstånd att utfärda vissa examina)* also authorise a private education supplier to confer professional degrees indicated in the Higher Education Ordinance. In the Ordinance from 1992 *(förordning 1992:819 om behörighetsgivande förutbildning vid universitet och högskolor)* special admission requirements for education at universities and university colleges are laid down for higher technical/further vocational education.

4.2.5.
The 1991 Ordinance *(förordning 1991:977 om statsbidrag till folkbildningen)* on subsidies to popular education regulates some of the conditions for State grants, e.g. to folk high schools. Some of the special aims of popular adult education are stated but as previously mentioned, there are basically no rules on how popular education should be organised nor its content.

4.2.6.
The Act on Commissioned Education *(lagen 1991:1109 om uppdragsutbildning)* regulates the conditions under which companies and organisations purchase CVT from municipalities and county councils.

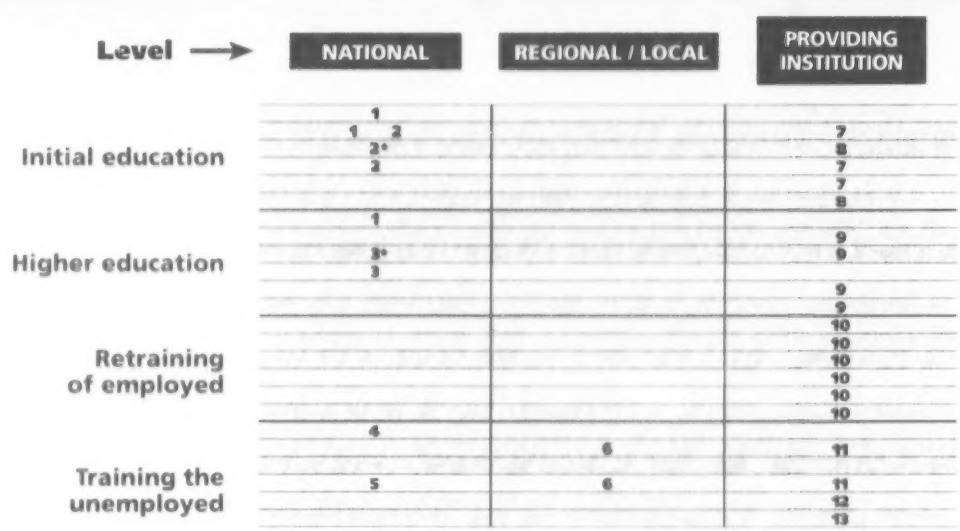
Ministry of Labour

4.2.7.
Employment training is regulated under the Employment Training Ordinance *(förordningen 1987:406 om arbetsmarknadsutbildning)*. Employment training is for labour market purposes and during this period a training allowance is received. The Labour Market Administration has overall responsibility for programmes in this field. Its central decision-making body in Stockholm, the Labour Market Board *(Arbetsmarknadsverket)*, directs, coordinates and develops labour market policy and allocates government funds in this field.

4.2.8.

The Labour Market Board distributes government funds to the 21 county labour market boards. It also makes decisions regarding the creation of relief jobs, employment training programmes and the like. In order to cooperate on questions of local employment, there is an employment service committee consisting of municipal, employer and employee representatives. A delegation from each county labour market board provides advice on occupational rehabilitation and other job-related programmes for the disabled. The District Employment Service (employment office, *arbetsförmedlingen*) coordinates local labour market matters and reports directly to the county labour market board. Recently, the government announced its ambition to implement a programme of fundamental decentralisation within the labour market organisation by substantially reducing staff at the national level, reorganising the county board and giving more power to the municipalities.

Figure 22. **Administrative responsibilities in the Swedish vocational training system**



Responsible authorities

1. Ministry of Education
2. National Agency for Education
3. Natonal Agency for Higher Education
4. Ministry of Labour
5. National Labour Market Board
6. County Labour Market Board
7. School and its controlling body
8. School
9. University
10. Employer (social partners)
11. Employment office
12. Employment office or municipality
13. Public or private institutions

Function

System regulation

Definition of content

Certification

Evaluation and quality audit

Information and guidance

Delivery

* Promulgates grade criteria only.

** Authorises accreditation and certification licences only.

SOURCE: **SWEDISH EU PROGRAMME OFFICE.**

95

Regulated occupations

4.2.9.
In Sweden there are only a few professions that require authorisation (regulated professions). Authorisation means that official recognition of a diploma is required in order to pursue a particular trade or profession. Certification is given both to employees and to the self-employed. The regulated professions agreed on so far are the following:

- driving instructor
- head of education (driving instruction)
- mate A and B
- ship mechanic A and B
- skipper A and B
- engineering officer A and B
- electrician
- aircraft maintenance technician
- cantor
- electrical installation engineer
- fireman
- fire officer
- head of fire brigade
- inspector of fire prevention
- chimney sweep
- chimney technician
- chimney engineer
- dental nurse
- dental hygienist and dispenser

4.2.10.
Authorisation is not given by the training establishment, but by a central official body and should be laid down in an act, ordinance or instruction by an authority. Within certain professions, the requirement for being allowed to practise is not just to possess a specific diploma, but also to satisfy other certification conditions.

The training programme for aircraft maintenance technicians provides an example:

The aircraft maintenance technician is responsible for the maintenance of civil aircraft, and issue of certificates of release, and service of aircraft in their entirety in accordance with ICAO Annex 1 – Aircraft Maintenance Technician Licence Type II.

In order to obtain certification as an aircraft maintenance technician, the technician must have satisfactorily completed training at an air maintenance technician school approved by the Swedish Civil Aviation Administration (Luftfartsverket – LFV) *(approximately three years) and have a minimum of two years maintenance work experience on operating aircraft of relevant types. In addition the technician shall have completed an approved training course for the type of aircraft for which the licence is sought.*

Proof of good character is based upon a personal reference issued by the local police. The applicant should be at least 21 years of age at the date the licence is issued.

Educational leave

4.2.11.
The right to educational leave is distinguished from entitlement to financial compensation. This means that, once educational leave has been awarded, the employee must either obtain compensation for loss of earnings by special agreement with the employer or else apply for financial compensation through, for example, the adult study assistance scheme. The act does not lay down any rules concerning employment benefits during educational leave. In other words no pay or

other financial benefits are guaranteed. On the other hand, there are job security rules applying to persons exercising their right to leave of absence. The act also includes provisions concerning the right of a person wishing to discontinue his or her studies to return to work.

4.3. Role of social partners

Historical background

4.3.1.
The first national trade unions came into being in the 1880s, most of them based on crafts. In 1898 a number of unions joined forces to form a central organisation known as the Swedish Trade Union Confederation *(Landsorganisationen i Sverige, LO)*. A few years later in 1902, the employers formed the Swedish Employers' Confederation *(Svenska Arbetsgivareföreningen,* SAF).

During the 1920s, there was much industrial action and new labour legislation was passed. Of particular importance were the Collective Bargaining Act and the Labour Court Act, both adopted in 1928. The 1930s witnessed the beginnings of labour-management cooperation on the basis of greater mutual trust. In 1938 *SAF* and *LO* concluded the Basic Agreement (*Saltsjöbadsavtalet*), a major event at that time. This agreement was a sort of 'peace treaty' that regulated their relations.

4.3.2.
Meanwhile, in the early 1930s, white-collar workers had begun to organise themselves into trade unions independent of *LO*, in many cases by expanding or adapting professional and social organisations formed previously. The Swedish Confederation of Professional Employees *(Tjänstemännens centralorganisation, TCO)* was formed in 1944 and the Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations *(Sveriges Akademikers Centralorganisation, SACO)* in 1947. A very large proportion of employees belong to trade unions. The social partners by tradition play an important role in creating and planning both initial and continuing vocational training. This is not always laid down in laws or ordinances but exists as a result of common agreement.

Collective bargaining and agreements/joint action

4.3.3.
Over the years there has been an agreement between the social partners and the State that a government formulated incomes policy should be avoided as far as possible. Employers and unions have been regarded as strong enough to reach their own agreements on pay and other conditions of employment and to take a societal responsibility not to increase inflation by excessively high salary increases. These conditions were for many years regulated by nation-wide collective agreements. But due to taxation policies, the inflation rate and the lack of increase in real income, there has been growing intervention from the government on these issues.

The most important purpose of collective bargaining contracts is to preserve labour peace. If no such contract is in force, industrial action is permitted. Collective agreements also have a norm-creating function, i.e. a company and its union are not

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allowed to stipulate conditions which are worse than those fixed by the applicable collective agreement.

4.3.4.
It was characteristic of the 1970s in Sweden that industrial relations issues that were previously regulated by agreements came to be regulated by legislation. Once fundamental economic and social rights had been achieved, politicians became increasingly interested in labour relations. Unions wanted to raise the level of union influence by legislation. A large number of labour laws were passed between 1973 and 1977, e.g. on job security, workers' co-determination, work environment and equality between the sexes.

4.3.5.
As for training and other forms of on-the job learning within the private sector, there has since 1982 been an agreement on development *(Utvecklingsavtalet, UVA)* between the Swedish Employers' Confederation (*SAF*), the Swedish Trade Union Confederation (*LO*) and the Union of Private Salaried Employees *(Privatt jänstemannakartellen, PTK)*. This is a general agreement concerning education and information to employees in relation to work organisation, technology and finance and was followed by agreements between partners within most areas of industry and in some cases also at a local level. These agreements contain, as does the *UVA*, general provisions on the responsibility of local partners to contribute together to improve circumstances for employees to cope with new demands for knowledge and qualifications.

4.3.6.
The social partners have also formed the manufacturing industry committee for competence aiming *inter alia* to analyse the need for competences within trade and industry, and through these analyses to have an influence on education in society. On the municipal and county side, in-company training is taken care of in an appendix to the 1977 Act on Employee Participation in Decision-Making (*MBL-KL*). In these collective agreements, the social partners have reached local agreements in single municipalities and counties.

Many agreements concerning education, have been reached by trade unions within the *LO* for example, the agreements of 1984 between the Electric Employers' Federation *(Elektriska Arbetsgivareföreningen, EA)* and the Swedish Electricians' Association *(Svenska Elektrikerförbundet, SEF)*; and *SAF* General Employers' Association *(SAF's Allmänna Arbetsgivareförbund)* and the Building Maintenance Workers' Union *(Fastighetsanställdas förbund)*. Others have signed development agreements (*UVA*) and there are also some which have reached *MBL* agreements concerning in-company training.

It is hard to give a full picture of the scope of local agreements. In general terms it could be said that large companies and groups of companies have a more developed strategy for personnel and arrange more in-company training than smaller companies.

4.3.7.
The Swedish Employers' Confederation (*SAF*) and the Swedish Trade Union Confederation (*LO*) have also created the Labour Market Trade Committee *(Arbetsmarknadens Yrkesråd)* with the task of:

- investigating and tracking the need for education within the labour market and through different measures acting to expand vocational training and make it more effective;
- supervising and coordinating activities at the local trade market committees;
- handling questions of general and principal significance for vocational training;
- keeping in touch with national authorities as well as organisations working within vocational training.

4.3.8.
The Employers' Federation *(Svenska Arbetsgivareföreningen, SAF)* consists of 25 districts, with about 285 local associations, and 45 sectoral ones. In total more than 65 000 companies are represented in this association. The association formed the Employers' Education Committee *(Arbetsmarknadens utbildningsråd)* in order to promote vocational training for craftsmen and industrial occupations as well as for smaller companies.

Links between social partners and public institutions

4.3.9.
The rapidly increasing significance of competence as a basic resource imposes demands for greater flexibility and change in the education system. Managing the future supply of competence and the increasing demands for higher competence requires not only that resources of different education organisers be used jointly, but that close cooperation between school, education organisers and working life be developed. Only then can there be an holistic view of education and its role in the development of competence in working life. If cooperation between education and working life is regarded as natural to the pursuit of knowledge, development towards increasing learning in working life will be facilitated.

4.3.10.
During the 1970s and 1980s resource centres, in particular technology centres, were created in many municipalities for cooperation between the various suppliers of education and local trade and industry. In some municipalities a resource centre may consist of huge, well-equipped premises with permanently employed staff and may have considerable economic resources whilst in other municipalities, it may be just a single person working to facilitate contacts and the common use of resources between education and business life. Activities are financed by contributions from organisers of education, municipal business foundations and companies.

By cooperating in such centres, different educational suppliers are able to use premises, equipment and staff jointly. In this way, a wider variety of education can be offered and quality improved. Particularly in smaller municipalities, such joint efforts can greatly improve the range of education and its accessibility, for both young people and adults. In the early 1990s, the government stimulated the development of knowledge centres by means of special State grants.

Other joint sectoral bodies

4.3.11.
To give some examples, the electrical trades have formed a centre for development and education in Nyköping where it is possible to update knowledge of new technologies and to supply new knowledge to persons involved in the trade. A

centre of the same kind has also been established in Katrineholm by the Heating, Water and Sanitation Employers' Association *(VVS-Entreprenörernas Arbetsgivareförbund)*, the Swedish Building Workers' Association *(Svenska Byggnadsarbetareförbundet)* and the Katrineholm Municipality *(VVS-Branchens Utbildningscentrum)*.

4.4. Financing vocational education and training

Total investment and sources of investment

4.4.1.
It is difficult to present an accurate picture of the total costs of VET in Sweden. To assess this one has to examine the costs of both basic or initial vocational training on the one hand, and continuing vocational training on the other. It is not only a problem of availability of accurate statistics, but also a question of the definition of vocational education and training. The idea of an integrated and comprehensive system of the education underlines the need for both theoretical and practical content in educational and vocational training programmes. Bearing this in mind, the major components of vocational education and training are:

for initial vocational training (IVT):
- vocational programmes in upper secondary schooling
- second and third grade technical and economic sub-programmes within natural and social science programmes
- individual and specially designed programmes
- vocational programmes and special courses according to the previous educational structure for upper secondary schooling

for continuing vocational training (CVT):
- municipal adult education (particularly that with a vocational profile)
- employment training (*AMU*)
- in-company training
- shorter vocationally oriented courses at higher education level.

The calculation below, based on current data from Statistics Sweden does not, however, include figures for higher education.

4.4.2.
Before introducing current statistics, it is necessary to underline the preliminary and tentative character of the figures. Firstly, it has not been possible to get data from the same periods for the different forms of education. Secondly, the assessment methods show a high level of variation, for example from more exact figures for employment training to broadly based approximations for in-company training. Furthermore, one has to make a distinction between the costs for the provision of education, and public investment decided upon to support study finance in the form of loans, grants or other solutions.

Table 23. **Total costs of vocational education and training excluding higher education, 1994/95, in millions of SEK**

Education form	Operating costs	Study finance	Total	% of GNP
Upper secondary school (IVT) (1)	13 814	1 427	15 241	1.0
Municipal adult education (2)	1 000	650	1 650	0.1
Employment training (3)	5 600	6 300	11 900	0.7
In-company training (4)	20 000	0	20 000	1.3
Total (excluding higher education)	**40 414**	**8 605**	**49 019**	**3.1**

N.B.: SEK 1 000 000 equals approximately ECU 114 000 (June1998).

(1) initial vocational education is 99 % financed by public money.
(2) the calculation of spending on municipal adult education is based on the average cost of students in municipal adult education multiplied by the number of students in vocational programmes. Municipal adult education is totally publicly financed.
(3) employment training is publicly financed.
(4) the total cost of in-company training is very difficult to estimate. Consideration has to be given not only to education costs and study finance for the participants, but also to the potential production loss of the enterprise. A broad estimate used by Statistics Sweden is between SEK 20 and 25 billion (i.e. ECU 2.35 and 2.95 billion) per year, not including the costs for production loss. SEK 20 billion is indicated as an estimate.

SOURCE: **STATISTICS SWEDEN, PROGNOSINSTITUTET.**

4.4.3.

Other efforts have been made to assess the cost of in-company and employer sponsored education (*SCB* 1995:3). An estimate made by the Swedish Trade Union Confederation in 1987 showed a total cost of SEK 20 000 million, an assessment that was questioned by the Swedish Employers' Federation arguing that this was an underestimate. Eurostat has taken an initiative to design a survey of the provision and costs of CVT. The Eurostat model makes a distinction between company costs, the costs of CVT purchased from other agencies and finally, the costs for collective funds or public financial support. Any calculation has to include both the wage costs for the staff in CVT and the cost of a replacement or vacancy, personal spending during CVT participation, costs of instructor and other personnel and finally, conference premises, educational equipment and teaching aids. The Eurostat model also makes a distinction between internal and external corporate training, a figure that varies between countries, sectors and type of corporation.

The assessment by the Swedish *LO* from 1987 was based on a participation level of 27 % of the labour force. In 1994, this level had risen to 38 % which would imply a significant increase in the cost per year to SEK 23 000 million.

4.4.4.
Summarising the different parts of VET with the exclusion of higher education results in an approximation of VET costs per year of around SEK 50 billion (around ECU 5.9 billion).

4.4.5.
The cost of VET forms part of general education spending. In total, education costs for public schooling (compulsory schooling, upper secondary schooling, municipal adult education, higher education and employment training) exceed SEK 100 billion. The cost of VET is, as mentioned above, around SEK 50 billion. The major components of VET are publicly financed with the exception of in-company training of which around 50 % takes place within the public sector and is thus financed by public money, but not through the State education budget.

Costs per student/trainee

4.4.6
The average cost per student in 1995 in upper secondary education including vocational programmes was SEK 59 900 with great variations between different programmes. Each student at upper secondary level is also entitled to a study grant of approximately SEK 6 500 per year. Certain sectors of municipal adult education provide IVT.

4.4.7.
The average cost per participant in employment training (*AMU*) was SEK 70 000 with significant variations between different sectors mainly because of the length of the programme (from 40 to 140 days). The education cost was at its lowest level in the agricultural sector and preparatory courses (SEK 38 100 and SEK 54 200) and highest in the industrial sector (SEK 115 000) with its need for more expensive learning equipment.

Incentives for corporate investment in CVT

4.4.8.
A general and jointly shared political attitude is that social investment in CVT is necessary in order to keep the labour force up-to-date and develop its skills. The financial incentives for companies to invest in CVT are thus great as a result of attractive, mainly publicly financed, provisions for vocational training courses.

Municipal upper secondary adult education and municipal basic adult education as well as the National Schools for Adults are provided free of charge to companies while study assistance to participants is paid by the State. In addition employee training is offered to enterprises free of charge. Apart from this, there are opportunities to get tailor-made courses for individual companies at these schools or *AMU* centres on a commissioned basis.

Wage costs for the temporary employee within the temporary replacement scheme entitle employers to a tax reduction to meet the cost of the training given. Temporary replacement for persons undergoing training is estimated on average to provide temporary employment for 0.3 % of the labour force every month, at the

same time as competence improving training is received by the same percentage. There are no other special tax policy arrangements for companies.

There is expected to be a need for an extension of CVT which will have to be financed. It is reasonable to expect that the expansion will have to be financed through a combination of greater public expenditure, user-payment by companies and vocationally oriented CVT such as leisure time studies (unpaid) for employees.

Incentives for individual investment in CVT

4.4.9.
All initial vocational training in Sweden is traditionally free of charge for the participant. The same conditions hold for continuing vocational training in the form of municipal adult education and employment training (*AMU*). The courses are either run by the State or, if commissioned, by companies, e.g. the *AMU* corporation which today is a private enterprise owned by the State. There is, however, also a growing market for privately financed further vocational training, which is not always recognised in the study finance system. As a consequence the individual has to finance the cost personally. To be able to afford living costs during studies, there are incentives for individuals to invest in CVT in the form of study assistance (financed by the State).

4.4.10.
The individual incentives for participating in CVT are to a large extent determined by the new labour market context and particularly the motivation to avoid unemployment. With education and training increasingly becoming a necessary tool to cope with new skill demands and a more efficient and flexible work organisation, it seems reasonable that it also has an impact on the individual's study motivation and incentives for learning. Better education and occupational skills provide new options to influence and control work conditions and also the work environment. Furthermore, participation in CVT in various forms is reinforcing the individual's employability and counteracts the risk of falling into the long term unemployment trap. As has been mentioned previously, unemployed adults are entitled to study core subjects at upper secondary level with a financial support which corresponds to the level of unemployment allowances. Thus in a policy for active labour market development and full employment, the design of the systems for financial support for individuals will have a strong impact on incentives for learning.

Study assistance

4.4.11.
Since one of the fundamental principles of municipal and national adult education is that individuals with the least education should have the opportunity of strengthening their standing in working life, there is a need for study grants within the education sector. No one should be prevented from studying due to a lack of financial resources.

From the age of 20, a student attending upper secondary or adult education can apply for a study loan including a study grant. Today the amount per month is approximately SEK 6 700 (ECU 640).

Adults in adult education can apply for special study assistance. The amount of the adult study assistance *(vuxenstudiestöd)* is dependent on the student's income before entering education. There is also special adult study assistance *(särskilt vuxenstudiestöd),* which can be granted for a period of at most two semesters to those who are unemployed.

Employment training is directed towards those who are unemployed or at risk of becoming unemployed. These groups also receive grants, corresponding to the level of unemployment benefit, while they are attending education.

4.4.12.
In the year 1995/96 the total expenditure on study assistance amounted to SEK 17 500 million of which SEK 8 600 million was spent on grants and SEK 8 900 million on loans.

A total number of 677 169 persons were granted some kind of study assistance during 1995/96, distributed by types of study as follows:

elementary and upper secondary level (including students abroad)	435 800
higher education (including students abroad)	225 700
study circles and short courses at folk high schools	11 395
special adult education for the mentally handicapped	239
Swedish language education for immigrants	4 035

SOURCE: ***STATISTICS SWEDEN, STUDIESTÖD 1995/96. SMU 70.***

Among the students, studying at upper secondary level and receiving study assistance, 72 % were below the age of 20.

In a report from a governmental commission on study finance 'Coordinated adult education support' *(Ett samordnat vuxenstudiestöd),* the commissioner referred to studies on the impact of adult study assistance. The overall view was that assistance has had great impact on the groups recruited to adult education. Large groups of adults had the opportunity of receiving education. This assistance has probably had its greatest effect on the number of full-time students, where many would otherwise not have started their education without such assistance.

4.4.13.
When unemployment started to rise in the years 1990–91, the regional labour market boards increased their purchases of education from the ordinary education system i.e. municipal adult education at the expense of employment training at *AMU* centres. In a given class in municipal adult education, there could be students with three different grants, comprising a study loan, adult study assistance and training grants, each at different levels. It was then decided that for students who are under 25, or if the study is carried out within the ordinary education system, the level of study assistance should be correlated to the amount given to students within the ordinary system.

According to the National Insurance Act *(Lag om allmän försäkring)* a person with a work-related injury can receive sickness benefit while studying in order to acquire

new skills and knowledge to get a new job. Thus there are a number of grants and benefits that are used by individuals to finance their studies. The different systems are not coherent since they are for different purposes. They differ in the level of the grant, its duration and financing.

Wage levels before and after education

4.4.14.
Another incentive for the individual to enter education is, of course, the wage or more specifically the expected wage after completing education. The wage gap between high-income and low-income earners is relatively low in Sweden. These issues have been discussed over the last few years.

Several studies indicate that the return on education, continuing education and higher education, has fallen during the last 20 years. During the 1980s young people's initial wages increased more compared with those of skilled and experienced workers. The wages of workers (collectively affiliated) are virtually fixed from the age of 25 and do not increase with age. This indicates a decrease in the effect of work experience on wages. During recent years there have been indications that the return on education has been increasing.

No regular tax reductions for CVT exist in Sweden except for the temporary replacement trainee scheme.

Chapter V
Qualitative aspects

5.1. Certification in a decentralised context

Demand for vocational training

5.1.1.
The system of education in Sweden is very decentralised. The municipalities are responsible for carrying out education in accordance with national goals. The provision of various courses and programmes within the educational system is therefore determined by local needs and influenced by student choices. Also in municipal adult education, the dimensions and direction of education rely primarily on students' choices and not on forecasts of the labour market situation.

The provision of employment training, on the other hand, is more directly connected to the demand for labour. Since one of the objectives of employment training is to match the supply of employees and unemployed to the demand of employers, there is a system for measuring/studying the demand for competencies on the labour market. The Labour Market Board makes short-term labour market projections, normally for between six months and a year. These projections are published twice a year. Statistics Sweden (*SCB*) makes long-term projections on the development of the labour market and the need for different types of education and competence.

5.1.2.
Only large companies/enterprises can afford to have a special unit for analysing the needs for skills in the future and the planning of training according to these needs. For small enterprises there is an association of suppliers of education *(Utbildningsföretagens förening)* which on an annual basis through questionnaires helps these companies analyse their training needs. The answers to these questionnaires are compiled in a report which forms the basis for the education and training to be offered by a large number of private education institutes. This makes it possible for enterprises to affect the supply of education. It is at the same time possible to keep an eye on quality. An institute lacking a good reputation will have fewer and fewer customers.

No system of occupational skills certification

5.1.3.
There is no formal system for recognition of further skills and competences acquired by unemployed persons in government-funded training programmes. Employment training generally provides the opportunity of receiving a document describing what is included in the training.

5.1.4.
In general, however, tests, diplomas or national vocational qualification schemes are not widely used in Sweden. Subject knowledge and qualifications acquired in the formal education system at upper secondary and higher education level are certified through the system of marks and grades. Employment training and in-company education, do sometimes result in a diploma or a course certificate. Specific skill requirements are needed for certain occupations. There is a trend in the Swedish competence market for training enterprises to develop their own training

certificates or quality standards, and sometimes these could be approved by labour market agencies, as a guarantee of the quality of customised training.

5.1.5.
The Employers' Education Committee (see paragraph 4.3.8 above) lays down rules for craftsmen's tests. On the local and regional level, questions concerning training will be dealt with by the training bodies within the local associations and the districts. The committee for the Master Craftsmen's Diploma is responsible for examining the qualifications of those applying for a master craftsman's diploma. After finishing courses in economics, marketing and labour legislation, it is possible to receive the Diploma as a leader of business from the Employers' Association. Applications for such Diplomas should be examined by the Employers' Education Committee. Within the Motor Trade Union, there are special tests arranged for highly skilled workers.

No certification in popular adult education

5.1.6.
Popular education activities are partly State-subsidised but the various organisers are at complete liberty to decide the emphasis and content of their activities themselves. There are no curricula or syllabuses formulated by external parties, nor are there any certificates issued in popular education. The folk high schools and the adult education associations have jointly set up the National Council for Adult Education *(Folkbildningsrådet)*, which is responsible for the distribution of government subsidies to the folk high schools and study circles, and for evaluating the activities of these establishments. Furthermore, it has to be mentioned that the government has launched a special follow-up programme for popular adult education.

5.2. Quality standards and quality assurance methods

National quality assurance

5.2.1.
As explained earlier there is a distinction between the public educational system where the State and the municipalities have control over the regulation, supply and evaluation of education and other forms of education with weaker control exercised by the State. In order to understand this organisational pattern better, it is therefore helpful to divide different education providers into four groups depending on methods of assessment and certification:
- upper secondary and municipal adult education
- employment training
- other education suppliers
- popular education.

5.2.2.
Municipal and national adult education are steered by, among other things, a national curriculum and national syllabuses. The goals stated in the curriculum for post-compulsory schools are of two kinds: goals that education should strive towards and those that everybody shall be given the opportunity of achieving. The foundations which are to influence the activities of the school and the demands imposed on students and school staff have been set out in six different sections:
- knowledge and skills
- norms and values
- student responsibility and influence
- headteacher's responsibility
- choice of education/career
- grades and assessment.

The system of control consists of national tests. These tests will make it easier to compare results in different schools when assessing grades.

5.2.3.
In accordance with the goal and result-oriented steering system in Sweden, there is a national follow-up and evaluation system. Parliament and the government should control educational activities by defining national goals and guidelines for education, while the national and local education authorities are responsible for ensuring that the education system is arranged in accordance with these national goals. Within the framework and guidelines laid down by parliament and government, the providers enjoy considerable freedom to determine how activities are to be implemented and how resources are to be distributed and used.

However, the State and local authorities, as well as individual schools and institutions of higher education are required to follow-up and evaluate educational activities systematically in relation to goals and conditions applying to these. The aim is for parliament and the government to be able to monitor and assess adherence to national goals and guidelines by obtaining an understanding of the results attained in education. As has been mentioned previously (see paragraph 2.3.1) the National Agency for Education is responsible for the design and monitoring of the national evaluation and follow-up system.

5.2.4.
Another aspect of quality is the education and training of teachers. The School Act stipulates that the municipalities must employ teachers who have completed teacher training college. Only under special circumstances can they employ a person without a university diploma in education. The School Act also states that the municipalities must provide continuing training/further education for teachers (see also Section 5.3 below).

Employment training

5.2.5.
The National Labour Market Board (*AMS*) has been monitoring a continuous evaluation system since 1979. Its main purpose has been to assess the employment conditions of individuals six months after completing a vocationally oriented employment training programme. Three criteria of effect are used in this evaluation, i.e. the employment impact after six months, the share of participants completing the employment training and finally an assessment of the utility of the training. Furthermore, the follow-up system analyses the role played by social background, prior learning, sex and age.

5.2.6.
From January 1994, new rules have been introduced for the labour market agencies in their purchasing of employment training programmes. The regional labour market boards must follow the general rules determining the conditions for public authorities purchasing services from independent providers of training. Special attention has to be given to objectivity, competition and accepted rules for business transactions. This new form of public purchasing is a complicated process comprising both the choice of education and the selection of the best provider. It is therefore important that the choice and contracting of a provider of employment training is carried out in accordance with previously established criteria regarding price and quality. To develop this procedure, some regional labour market boards are together applying a new system of quality indicators to be used in the purchasing process. In addition to these quality indicators, which aim at a proactive quality assurance, there is also a national and unified system for the evaluation of the outcome of employment training. In order to keep a high quality among the training companies contracted in labour market education, different forms of certification might be used.

Private initiatives in quality assurance

5.2.7.
The Swedish Association of Local Authorities *(Svenska Kommunförbundet)* has in cooperation with the Swedish Institute for Quality (SIQ) *(Institutet för kvalitetsutveckling)* founded a quality award for Swedish schools. This is to be implemented by a decision from each local authority. The school quality award is based on a total quality management concept. Each school will write a report. The main criteria for the report are:
- leadership in the school
- information and analysis about the school
- strategic planning of the school
- development, commitment and participation of employees
- processes of the activity
- result of the activity
- customer satisfaction
- evaluation/judgement of the report is carried out from three different perspectives
- strategies as to how schools work with the criteria, how these are applied and to what extent this is accomplished
- results.

The essential point is not competition between the schools, but the commitment and work of the schools involved.

5.3. Training of vocational teachers and training personnel

Categories of personnel

5.3.1.
The quality of VET depends on a number of factors such as its content, the learning environment and not least the qualifications of teaching staff. As mentioned before, a great deal of VET in Sweden is organised within the general education system. In-service training is arranged within companies, but also commissioned externally on a consultancy basis. A distinction must therefore be made between training personnel working in public institutions that provide training, and training personnel working in private institutes or enterprises. In the first case there will be difficulties in getting accurate figures of the number of teachers engaged only in VET. As for the second category, these trainers are often employed by the company. Professional qualifications and supervisory experience in their enterprise is often used by trainers as the basis for the education to be provided. It is impossible to estimate the numbers of this kind of teaching staff. The following figures therefore only refer to teachers within the municipal education system and employment training.

Table 24. **Number of teachers during the 1993/94 and 1994/95 school years, by type of education provided**

Type of school	Number of teachers	
	1993/94	1994/95
Upper secondary school	29 900	29 900
Municipal adult education	6 700	6 700
Employment training	3 200	3 500

SOURCE: *MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE.*

5.3.2.
In total there are about 130 000 teachers in the Swedish formal education system. Around 30 000 of these teach in upper secondary education, with 12 000 employed as vocational teachers (Petersson, 1996). A survey initiated by a recent commission on training of vocational teachers (see paragraph 5.3.6 below) showed that 10 % were on leave of absence, only 46 % had graduated from upper secondary school themselves and that almost half of the group did not have any vocational experience after their employment as a vocational teacher. The commissioner also referred to the high average age among vocational teachers, their weak theoretical qualifications and lack of up-to-date experience of the workplace.

5.3.3.
Another challenge with respect to the skill profile of vocational teachers is the need to create an encounter between theoretical and practical knowledge in initial vocational education. It is necessary to bridge the gap between the two cultures in upper secondary education by aiming at more integrated didactic methods and study organisation. This objective is crucial for implementing the core curriculum idea in vocational programmes and thereby strengthening the theoretical qualifications in Swedish and English, maths and civics for all students.

Regulations for vocational teachers

5.3.4.
Policy responsibility for the training of vocational teachers lies with the Ministry of Education and Science. Training options for vocational teachers at initial level is provided at higher education level, e.g. at the universities of Gothenburg, Lund and Umeå and the Stockholm Institute of Education. These institutions of higher education are responsible for admission procedures, curriculum, syllabuses and diplomas. The assessment used for new applicants includes both the evaluation of work experience outside school and formal education merits. The Degree Ordinance of 1993 regulates the professional degree: University Diploma in Education for Upper Secondary School.

The vast majority of upper secondary schools providing vocational education form part of the public system of education. The municipalities are obliged to employ and as far as possible use qualified vocational teachers. The formal requirements comprise both a teacher training programme and relevant subjects at higher education level as well as proficiency in Swedish. When a teacher is employed, it is the responsibility of the controlling body and the headteacher to provide good opportunities for in-service training.

Training of VET teachers in upper secondary schools

5.3.5.
An important basic principle is that upper secondary school vocational education should be geared to changes in working life and organisational structures. The upper secondary school reform and the move towards a more course-based approach in school improve the chances of achieving this.

Both working life and upper secondary school are developing at a rapid pace. It is therefore vital to analyse how this development affects the competences required of vocational teachers. Increasingly high demands are made on people in working life. The trend is away from narrow specialisation to a broad range of skills, away from mechanically controlled work to problem solving, and away from individual to team work. Demands for theoretical qualifications are also increasing across the board.

The reformed upper secondary school is geared to meeting the demands of working life for broad-based skills. The national programmes in the reformed upper secondary school are considerably broader in scope than previous vocational courses of study or special courses. They provide education within a broad field of knowledge, not just training for a particular occupation. Increased breadth is also reflected in the increase in the number of general subjects.

To be able to meet these requirements, teachers' qualifications must be improved and enhanced. This applies in particular to vocational education in upper secondary schools.

5.3.6.
In order to investigate how this could be organised, the government in June 1993 set up a commission on Competence Requirements for Upper Secondary School

Teachers of Vocational Subjects. In the final report of August 1994 the Commission made an assessment of the quaiifications required of future vocational teachers and how these requirements should be met. The Commissioner also made proposals for a future model concerning the division of responsibility for upper secondary vocational education between society and working life (*SOU 1994:101*).

Further teacher training – career development

5.3.7.
The commission regarded the fact that there are no natural channels for further training for a large group of vocational teachers as a serious drawback. It is therefore important to develop further training in both the vocational teacher's own subject and in educational theory and practice. Access to such courses should be conditional upon a certain number of years of teaching experience after completion of training, documented in a special teaching proficiency certificate for upper secondary school teachers of vocational subjects. Following these courses of further training, there should be opportunities for postgraduate study and research in the field of methodology in vocational education. Such research is a valuable basis for local development work, as it creates the conditions for the establishment of posts such as 'senior teacher' in vocational subjects. This means an improvement in the quality of the vocational subject and an enhancement in the qualifications of the teaching staff.

5.3.8.
Every vocational teacher must be guaranteed in-service training – both in his/her subject and in educational theory and practice. An individual development plan should therefore be drawn up annually for every teacher specifying the in-service courses the teacher is to attend. In-service training may take the form of courses arranged by colleges and other course organisers, as well as practical experience in the relevant profession. All in-service training should be based on analyses of requirements carried out by the individual upper secondary school concerned and by schools jointly in a larger region. Further teacher training is the responsibility of the headteacher (principal) of the school and of the municipality.

5.4. Vocational guidance

Information and counselling in vocational education

5.4.1.
One major objective in Swedish education is the individual pupil's right to choose education with respect to personal interests and motivation. One component supporting this mission is the comprehensive and integrated organisational design giving access both to theoretical and vocational programmes. Furthermore, the new individual choice option in the new curriculum for compulsory and upper secondary education underlines this objective. Another tool for realising this goal is to build an efficient system of information and counselling at various stages of the education system.

114

Cooperation between the compulsory school and working life

5.4.2.
The work experience programme *PRAO, Praktisk yrkesorientering,* has existed for some time in Swedish compulsory schools. Previously, there were national regulations requiring pupils to spend six or ten weeks of their compulsory school time at places of work. It was common to take at least four of those weeks during the last three years of compulsory school. The purpose of *PRAO* is to enable pupils to gain first-hand experience of working life and become more aware of different kinds of occupations and working environments.

5.4.3.
Through study and vocational guidance *SYO, studie- och yrkesorientering,* pupils can get information to help them in their choice of studies and career. There used to be regulations concerning this activity as well. According to the new curricula, the school head has a special responsibility for cooperation with working life outside the school, and for organising the options offered by the school to help pupils in their choice of further studies and occupation. There are no longer any national regulations concerning the scope and organisation of *PRAO* and *SYO*. It is up to the local authority and the school itself to determine in detail how these schemes can best be incorporated into the school's overall activities. Today, most schools have special *SYO* staff working with information and guidance for pupils and parents.

Provision of vocational guidance for the poorly qualified and/or unemployed

5.4.4.
As described previously there is a long tradition in Sweden of offering unskilled and semi-skilled workers employment training to upgrade their skills to match the needs of technological development. The term poorly qualified includes people lacking skills, having obsolete skills, or people in need of retraining. These training activities are described in other parts of this report. Here only a description of activities for functionally disabled people and others who need particular help in finding jobs will be provided.

5.4.5.
Under each county labour market board (*LAN*) there are one or more employability institutes (*AMIs*) providing support for functionally disabled job-seekers and others who need particular help in finding, obtaining and holding down jobs. The activities cover mainly vocational preparation and in-depth guidance. There are about 100 *AMIs* in total.

AMI – employability institutes

5.4.6.
AMI (arbetsmarknadsinstitutet) services for job-seekers are provided through, firstly, consultancy activities at the employment offices and, secondly, enrolment periods of varying length at the institutes. Special *AMI* activities for the functionally disabled involve particularly extensive consultancy work.

The methods used in *AMIs* are based on the conviction that every human being has assets that may be utilised in education and work. Helping job seekers to identify and make the most of these assets is one starting-point for *AMI* activities. They are also aimed at helping individual job seekers to form opinions and make up their own minds about the goals they wish to strive for in the labour market. The ways in which the inputs are arranged provide an incentive for and require an active commitment from, the job-seeker. Each person's particular needs are made the basis of an individual plan that determines the nature and scope of inputs. These may include all or some of the following activities:

- appraisal, aimed at clarifying the job-seeker's prospects in the labour market, takes place in private discussions, which alternate with group sessions in which job-seekers in similar occupational situations cooperate with one another;
- an individual action plan takes shape, with reference to the prospects revealed during the appraisal stage, and is documented in written form;
- through vocational orientation and work experience, job-seekers are given the opportunity of trying various tasks and job settings at first hand, for the purpose of guidance or practice. Guidance sessions on choosing a job, occupation and training are alternated with vocational orientation and work experience activities;
- placement on training courses and in employment is effected with the assistance of the employment consultants at *AMIs* or the employment service.

5.4.7.
One important element is adapting workplaces and the work environment to make them suitable for functionally disabled people. This is achieved by such means as rearranging tasks and deploying technical aids. Computerised work aids are playing an ever larger part in creating jobs for the functionally disabled.

Through what are known as 'working-life services' (*ALT*), the Labour Market Administration can also offer vocational rehabilitation to people in employment. Rehabilitation services are available for a fee to social insurance offices and individual companies. *AMI* experts participate, when required, in implementing these services. This applies in particular to the special *AMI* activities for those with impaired hearing/vision and the physically disabled.

In order for the *AMIs'* efforts for the functionally disabled to succeed, one prerequisite is effective medical and social support measures. The *AMIs* therefore cooperate closely with the public authorities and institutions responsible for providing this support.

5.5. Research on vocational education and training

5.5.1.
Vocational education is not a top priority among educational researchers in Sweden. More interest is paid to youth education, higher education and various parts of adult education, in particular popular adult education. Few education departments are actively involved in research into vocational education. However, if one broadens the academic scope, there are in fact a number of research projects and programmes dealing with vocational education and training and its relation to on-the-job learning and in-company training. The Swedish Council for Work Life Research *(Rådet för arbetslivsforskning)* has taken an initiative to map and describe

vocational education and training as a research field in Sweden, an effort that has been planned with Cedefop, within the framework of the European Research Directory.

5.5.2.

The current research activities can, with a risk of oversimplification, be divided into various subfields. The first one relates to an economic analysis of the role of education and training for productivity and competitiveness. A common example is the development of various models of comparing the educational attainment of the work force in different countries. Another approach is focusing on the teaching and learning context and its social and economic impact within various fields of vocational learning. There is an established tradition of following up and analysing the impact of employment training. Research on initial vocational training within upper secondary education has been investigating the educational impact of workplace connected learning (*APU*) and from a curriculum point of view, the role of core subjects for students in vocational education and school-to-work transition. Finally, there is an increasing interest both in assessing the volume and costs of in-company training and analysing the role of in-company training and on-the-job learning in various enterprise cultures.

The Swedish Council for Research in the Humanities and Social Sciences *(Humanistisk-Samhällsvetenskapliga Forskningsrådet)* is coordinating the research initiatives on education and training being financed within the socioeconomic programme as a part of the EU's fourth framework programme for research. The Swedish Council for Work Life Research has a sub-programme on learning and change at the workplace. Furthermore, research and policy studies on labour market policies and employment training have been performed by EFA, the expert group for labour market evaluation studies, which was abolished at the beginning of 1997. From 1 July 1997, a new National Institute for Labour Market Policy Evaluation has been set up under the Ministry of Labour.

Chapter VI
Trends and perspective

6.1. New conditions for policy implementation

6.1.1.
The education system in Sweden has undergone a fundamental organisational transition during the last decade. This change is partly a result of new policies and reforms both in the public sector and in education itself. The new conditions have also to be seen in the context of new developments in society and working life. The process of implementing the reform has resulted in a number of new conditions for education in general, as well as for continuing vocational training. A more decentralised contract between central State interests and the responsibilities of cities and municipalities has been decided on by the Swedish Parliament. The renewal of central educational administration gives more freedom to the municipalities to organise schools and to design the teaching/learning process within the framework and objectives of the national curricula.

6.1.2.
The process of decentralisation affects most fields in society and not just education. The steering method developed in several sectors has been to provide State support or grants in a lump sum and thus move away from an over-regulated system with hundreds of different, earmarked grants. Furthermore, cities and the municipalities now have more freedom in developing appropriate forms of administration and setting up councils and advisory groups as a result of the reform of local municipal administration from the early 1990s.

Many municipalities have replaced the traditional school board with councils incorporating other fields where services are to be provided. In other cases, decentralisation within larger cities has resulted in district councils for compulsory schools and city councils for upper secondary schools, adult education and sometimes cultural institutions.

6.1.3.
Another important change initiated by the centre-right government in power between 1991 and 1994, was the introduction of more generous financial conditions for independent schools as well as the school voucher system. This policy facilitated opting-out initiatives both at compulsory and upper secondary level. Although small in numbers of students, there were more than 10 % independent schools at upper secondary level.

6.1.4.
A retrospective analysis of the development of vocational education and training in Sweden has to recognise the influence of broader social and educational values. Comprehensiveness, integration and the striving for equity symbolise Swedish educational policies. In 1971 the former vocational schools and the trade schools were integrated into the upper secondary system. The development of a core curriculum and the extension of vocational programmes to three years reflect the Swedish ambition to promote general and generic knowledge and skills in vocational education as well.

6.1.5.
In this respect, Sweden differs significantly from the German and Austrian tradition with apprenticeship schemes working in close cooperation with industry and

commerce. Seen generally, initial vocational training or initial vocational education has to a large extent been incorporated in public education provided by the State. One of the consequences of this strategy is that there are not a large number of corporate schools or in-company vocational training systems. One of the major challenges in this respect then is to find new ways of cooperation between the social partners and between external education providers and education and training at the workplace provided by the employer.

6.1.6.
Continuing vocational training comprises a variety of providers and programmes taking different routes to the learning society. Municipal adult education, being part of the public school system, follows the general decentralisation pattern. Its content and curriculum focuses today on basic skills and core curriculum at upper secondary level. Vocational courses have decreased in significance during the last decades. Employment training has been fundamentally reorganised with respect to allocation of resources, providers and content. Traditional vocational training for specific occupations is being increasingly replaced by upgrading of basic skills and general knowledge and by an expanding share of various forms of introduction to employment and employment development programmes.

Furthermore a new pattern of competition on the training market is emerging with a reduction of traditional employment training (*AMU*) centres and an increase in private training enterprises. In-company training has doubled during the last decade and access is to a large extent being determined by previous education, type of job contract and labour market sector. More broadly seen, CVT is influenced by changing supply-demand patterns on the training market, while IVT still is being governed within the public sector and under new decentralised conditions.

6.2. Vocational education and training in a new societal context

Education and the growth of unemployment

6.2.1.
Less than 10 years ago policy makers in various countries talked about the shortage of young people in the labour market. Today youth unemployment is a major threat to the development and prosperity of all member countries of the European Union. Recent Swedish statistics reveal clearly that young individuals aged between 20 and 30 are in relative terms the group that has been hardest hit by the unemployment crises. The social and economic impact of this development makes it very difficult for young people to move from casual work or unemployment and get a permanent position in the labour market. On the contrary, short-term jobs of a 'just-in-time' character, unemployment and further studies are increasingly common for young people. Unemployment and the shortage of new jobs also have repercussions for the provision and consumption of education.

6.2.2.
The government has recently proclaimed that unemployment will be reduced by 50 % by the year 2000. The government bill 1995/96:207 comprised an action programme including massive investment in education. Regular education will be

expanded by 140 000 adult education places primarily intended for the unemployed and persons with low levels of education. Higher education will be expanded by 60 000 places. The new adult education initiative *(Kunskapslyftet)* is mainly oriented towards the need for core subjects at upper secondary level. More education is seen as a panacea for solving a number of problems, including unemployment.

Changing skill requirements

6.2.3.
The high speed of labour market transformation and job turnover has an impact on the need for skills and competence of the work force. A significant increase in the provision of competence development at work is of crucial importance for the security and wealth of employees, but also for Sweden's economic survival in a growing international competition. Competence is no longer just a question of occupational skills. It also comprises the capacity to solve problems, to learn and adapt to changes and to communicate. Social skills are becoming more important in order to work in teams and projects and to meet customers or subcontractors. The success story of an enterprise, to a large extent, depends on its capacity to change its production system. It is a challenge that calls for a flexible work organisation and highly skilled employees.

6.2.4.
In addition to a good basic education, it is necessary for the employee to participate in continuous vocational learning in the form of both theoretical study and on-the-job training. Such an adaptation to change is fundamental for the individual employee's career and to promote a developing work context. More investments in information technology and new and more efficient work organisation are other trends with a major impact on education today and tomorrow. Internationalisation of working life in general and education in particular is another process that will change ideals and realities in Sweden.

New intercultural context

6.2.5.
Youth education in Sweden is surrounded by a quite different cultural context. Sweden is increasingly shifting from a socially and culturally homogenous country to a mixed culture. The ethnic aspect involves not just the introduction of new values, ideas and skills in society. It is also a phenomenon that contains an increasing risk of social exclusion, especially for immigrants and their children from Third World countries or refugee families recovering from extreme social trauma and conflicts.

6.2.6.
Another aspect of cultural life for young people is the emergence of new and more post-materialist values in the coming generation which are often connected with another type – or perhaps no type – of work ethic. Getting a job directly after school is not a high priority value. Combined periods of short courses, short work assignments or short travelling periods over long distances provide a completely new setting for a school-to-work transition.

Part of this new development is a growing interest in upper secondary programmes in media, aesthetics and culture at the expense of traditional programmes in science or vocational programmes for the industrial sector. There is also a debate today on the need for creating the spirit of enterprise in upper secondary education programmes. Following that idea, initial vocational education should not only prepare for an employee role, but also for personal active commitment in business and self-employment. An illustration of this trend is a growing interest in both upper secondary and higher education in training for enterprise and job creation.

6.3. The challenge for VET in a lifelong learning society

6.3.1.
In Sweden, for most of the 20th century, education has been a matter of high priority, both as a means of stimulating economic growth and levelling out social inequalities. The reorganisation of vocational education and training from being basically industry-based to being integrated in the general school system is a reflection of how the State has perceived its role in relation to the upgrading of the qualifications of the work force and the supply of skilled labour. Labour market policies have over decades been actively oriented to re-educating the unemployed. The State has also engaged itself in a number of other forms of VET in the public education system and on the labour market.

The part of the VET system that forms an integral part of working life and that is directed to people already employed, is, of course, harder to describe and assess, both in quality and quantity. There is a general awareness in the political debate that the volume of CVT in working life is too small in relation to what are believed to be the future demands of the labour market. The statistics are fairly good and indicate a situation where well educated people receive extensive CVT and the poorly educated receive very little.

6.3.2.
The latter in relative terms comprises the greater part of the work force, and this indicates the magnitude of the problem. Due to the structure of Swedish working life and predominant forms of work organisation, the present demand for higher competencies seems to be rather low, in terms of in-company education and training. Rapid changes affecting job structures will, however, lead to increased demand for higher educational qualifications. Demographic realities show that the jobs of tomorrow must be done predominantly by people already working today. If they cannot gain sufficient competence in their work today, they will not be able to carry out their jobs tomorrow. This potential competence gap is one of the really major problems Swedish working life is facing today.

CVT beyond employment training

6.3.3.
The overview of recent policy developments illuminates the difficulties of matching the concept of continuing vocational training with the more diversified provision of post-compulsory learning options in Sweden. The traditional borders between general adult education and vocational training are no longer useful.

Firstly, it is not possible to design a continuing learning project aimed at a specific vocation. Policy makers are increasingly underlining the importance of general education and generic competencies. In practice, this leads to more policy attention on broad programmes instead of early specialisation e.g. an apprenticeship model adapted to a certain vocation.

Secondly, the high level of unemployment has resulted in a policy where 'Sweden expects every organiser of adult education to serve the nation by providing new learning options for the unemployed'. Folk high schools have been very flexible and effective in serving this purpose. *Komvux* has been highly successful and also established a strong position in the traditional *AMU* market.

Thirdly, the increasing importance of customised education and training has stimulated various providers to collaborate in a way that was not possible four or five years ago. In order to analyse the role of continuing vocational training, it is also necessary to consider the impact of the policies of independent schools and school voucher models. New independent schools are not only starting at compulsory level, but also in the field of upper secondary education.

6.3.4.
A more strategic problem, however, is the contribution of CVT to upgrading the Swedish work force with respect to present and future skill requirements. The present government is using investment in education as a panacea for counteracting unemployment and for meeting new skill requirements at work. Formal adult education and higher education in particular are in a period of substantial expansion. International competition is met by increasing the options for general education and more generic future-oriented knowledge. A governmental commission into the promotion of adult education and lifelong learning *(Kunskapslyftskommittén)* has analysed the conditions for a general educational upgrading of the work force *(SOU 1996:164)*. The commission underlines the importance of broad access in society to further education and lifelong learning. This is a necessity if Sweden is to continue to take an active role in a more knowledge-intensive and knowledge-oriented society.

The new strategy has to be built on three cornerstones, namely high quality in initial and compulsory education, remedial and compensatory measures for neglected adult learners and increasing access to and promotion of lifelong learning. It is a strategy that calls for close cooperation between the State and the municipalities and new alliances with the social partners. One of the ideas of the commission is that basic skills and core subject knowledge at upper secondary level are a necessary platform for lifelong learning.

6.3.5.
Other initiatives discussed in the public debate are the options of individual competence insurance systems, voucher models used in European Social Fund Objective 4 activities in Sweden and the enhancement of learning at work through the concept of learning organisations. Competence development and incentives for learning are also treated by the governmental commission on labour laws. New ideas concerning tax exemptions for SMEs taking a more active role in upgrading their personnel is another idea presented.

The need for lifelong learning also has to be discussed in the context of the institutionalisation of education in society. The idea of recurrent education was strongly promoted in the early 1970s by opening higher education to adults and underlining the learning links between work experience, education and other life activities. It was a common pattern that students aimed at work experience prior to higher education or even prior to upper secondary schooling. Today, in a period of low job-growth and high unemployment, the free market for work experience has almost disappeared not to say been abolished. The alternative is embarking on State-financed working life development schemes, sometimes with weak links to ordinary jobs.

From deskilling to upgrading

6.3.6.

This new educational boom can be seen as both a risk and a challenge for CVT in a lifelong learning society. The risk panorama implies a situation where young people graduating from vocational programmes will spend 'waiting years' of educational deskilling before entering the labour market or getting a job. It can also create over-educated individuals not attractive to employers or owners of SMEs without much education themselves. On the other hand, it is obvious that it would be much more difficult to find jobs if these new learning links were not provided.

The objective of halving unemployment by the year 2000 is the major driving force behind current educational expansion. Looking at this challenge from a policy point of view, two major issues or priorities have to be met. Firstly it is necessary to find a balance between workplace learning and skill upgrading, the promotion of general education and core curriculum skills, the development of occupational skills and finally, the enhancement of employment introduction programmes or 'software' work–study schemes. Secondly, one must face the problem of study motivation and incentives for learning. A successful educational policy has to search for a genuine and functioning combination of supply and demand. Thus, study finance, educational leave of absence and the option of using unemployment benefits for skill upgrading are still crucial policy areas.

Another risk of deskilling in a lifelong learning society, also reinforced by the high levels of unemployment and the growing number of temporary jobs with more uncertain employment conditions, is the decrease in the level of mobility among the core of the labour force employed in positions in which they have security of tenure. Recent studies highlight the fact that an increasing number of employees prefer a secure position in which their skill profile will not be used enough, to a new and more challenging position on a temporary basis.

A work environment that does not enhance the individual's capacity and willingness to learn and develop is a threat to the notion of a lifelong learning society. The turbulence created during the peak of the unemployment crisis has, however, forced over a million employees to embark on new routes to retraining and lifelong learning. It is hoped the infrastructure of the learning society will be responsive and open to their new needs.

Annexes

Annex 1

Acronyms and abbreviations

ABB	Asea Brown Bovery Corporation
AKU	*Arbetskraftsundersökningar* Labour market surveys (regularly carried out by Statistics Sweden)
ALU	*Arbetslivsutveckling* Employment development programmes (of introductory character)
AMI	*Arbetsmarknadsinstitutet* Employability institutes (under Swedish National Labour Market Administration responsible for skill assessment, vocational guidance, job placement and special measures for adults with functional impairments)
AMS	*Arbetsmarknadsstyrelsen* Swedish National Labour Market Board
AMU	*Arbetsmarknadsutbildning* Employment training
AMUGruppen	*AMU*-Group – a leading employment training corporation
AMV	*Arbetsmarknadsverket* Swedish National Labour Market Administration (*AMS* including regional boards and local employment offices and special institutions, e.g. *AMI*)
API	*Arbetsplatsintroduktion* Work place introduction (labour market measure operated by AMS and comprising the previously available submeasures *ungdomspraktik, akademikerpraktik, invandrarpraktik och ungdomsinstroduktion* i.e. introductory programmes for youth, academics and immigrants)
APU	*Arbetsplatsförlagd utbildning* Workplace learning modules at upper secondary level (compulsory component in vocational programmes, now also optional in theoretical programmes)
CVT	Continuing vocational training *Kontinuerlig yrkesutbildning*
IST	In-service training *Personalutbildning*
IVT	Initial vocational training *Grundläggande yrkesutbildning*
KAS	*Kontant arbetslöshetsunderstöd* Unemployment allowances
Komvux	*Kommunal vuxenutbildning* Municipal adult education (curriculum corresponding to upper secondary education)
LAN	*Länsarbetsnämnden* County Labour Market Board
LO	*Landsorganisationen* Swedish Trade Union Confederation
LF	*Landstingsförbundet* Swedish Federation of County Councils
LPF 94	*1994 års läroplan för de frivilliga skolformerna* National curriculum for upper secondary schools and municipal adult education

LPO 94	*1994 års läroplan för det obligatoriska skolväsendet* National curriculum for compulsory school *(Grundskolan)*
LR	*Lärarnas riksförbund* The National Swedish Federation of Teachers (organising teachers with an academic background working mainly at upper secondary level or being responsible for certain subjects at upper level in compulsory schooling)
MBL	*Medbestämmandelagen* Act on workers' co-determination in decision making
NAE	*Statens skolverk or Skolverket* National Agency for Education (national educational administration under Ministry of Education and Science responsible for schools and municipal adult education)
PRAO	*Praktisk arbetslivsorientering* Practical working life orientation (at compulsory school level)
PTK	*Privattjänstemannakartellen* Union of Private Salaried Employees
RIO	*Rörelseskolornas intresseorganisation* National organisation for folk high schools belonging to popular movements
SACO	*Sveriges Akademikers Centralorganisation* Swedish Association of Professional Associations
SAF	*Svenska arbetsgivareföreningen* Swedish Employers' Confederation
SCB	*Statistiska Centralbyrån* Statistics Sweden (National agency for production of statistics/economic indicators, etc.)
SEK	*Svenska kronor* Swedish crowns
SFI	*Svenska för invandrare* Swedish for immigrants (programme in Swedish language provided by municipal educational authorities)
SL	*Sveriges lärarförbund/Lärarförbundet* Swedish Teacher's Union (organising teachers mainly from compulsory schools)
SMFs	*Små och medelstora företag* Small and medium size-enterprises (SMEs)
SOU	*Sveriges offentliga utredningar* Official government reports
SSV	*Statens skolor för vuxna* National distance adult schools in Härnösand and Norrköping
SYO	*Studie- och yrkesorientering* Educational and vocational counselling
TCO	*Tjänstemännens centralorganisation* Swedish Confederation of Professional Employees (the biggest trade union for white collar workers with 1.3 million members)
UVA	*Utvecklingsavtalet* General agreement on development (by social partners including the role of workplace learning to promote efficiency, productivity and quality)
VET	*Yrkesutbildning* Vocational education and training
YTH	*Yrkesteknisk högskoleutbildning* Vocational-technical higher education

Annex 2

Major organisations

AMUGruppen (the Labour Market Training Group)
Box 1181
S-111 91 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 701 65 00
Fax (46-8) 701 659
E-mail: info@amu.se

Arbetslivsinstitutet (National Institute for Working Life)
S-17184 Solna
Tel. (46-8) 791 30 00
Fax (46 8) 730 19 67
E-mail: arbetslivsinstitute@niwl.se

Arbetsmarknadsdepartementet (Ministry of Labour)
S-103 33 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 405 10 00
Fax (46-8) 20 73 69
E-mail: labour@labour.ministry.se

Arbetsmarknadsstyrelsen (Swedish National Labour Market Board)
S-17199 Solna
Tel. (46-8) 730 60 00
Fax (46-8) 82 70 18
E-mail: ams-information@ams.amv.se

Arbetsmarknadens yrkesråd (The Joint Industrial Training Council)
Blasieholmshamnen 4A
S-111 48 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 762 60 00
Fax (46-8) 762 62 90
E-mail: margaretha.nygren@saf.se

Centrala studiestödsnämnden (CSN) (National Board of Student Aid)
S-851 82 Sundsvall
Tel. (46-60) 18 60 00
Fax (46-60) 18 62 70
E-mail: csn@csn.se

Högskoleverket (National Agency for Higher Education)
Birger Jarlsgatan 43
Box 7851
S-103 99 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 453 70 00
Fax (46-8) 453 70 50
E-mail: hsv@hsv.se

Humanistiskt-Samhällsvetenskapliga forskningsrådet, HSFR (the Swedish Council for Research in the Humanities and Social Sciences)
Box 7120
S-103 87 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 454 43 10
Fax (46-8) 454 43 20
E-mail: hsfr@hsfr.se

Landstingsförbundet (the Swedish Federation of County Councils)
Box 70491
S-107 26 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 702 43 00
Fax (46-8) 702 45 90
E-mail: landstingsforbundet@if.se

LO Landsorganisationen (the Swedish Trade Union Confederation)
Barnhusgatan 18
S-10553 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 796 25 00
Fax (46-8) 796 28 00
E-mail: info@lo.se

LR Lärarnas riksförbund (the National Swedish Federation of Teachers)
Box 3529
S-103 69 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 613 27 00
Fax (46-8) 21 91 36
E-mail: lr@lr.se

Lärarförbundet (Swedish Teachers' Union)
Box 1229
S-102 26 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 737 65 00
Fax (46-8) 656 94 15
E-mail: kansli@lararforbundet.se

Rådet för arbetslivsforskning (Swedish Council for Working Life Research)
Box 1122
S-111 81 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 791 03 00
Fax (46 8) 791 85 90
E-mail: ralf@ralf.se

SAF Svenska arbetsgivareföreningen (the Swedish Employers' Confederation)
S-103 30 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 762 60 00
Fax (46-8) 762 62 90
E-mail: info@saf.se

Skolverket (National Agency for Education)
S-106 20 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 723 32 00
Fax (46-8) 24 44 20
E-mail: skolverket@skolverket.se

Statistiska Centralbyrån (Statistics Sweden)
S-701 89 Örebro
Tel. (46-19) 17 60 00
Fax (46-19) 17 64 44
E-mail: infoservice@scb.se

Svenska EU programkontoret för utbildning och kompetens (Swedish EU Programme Office for Education, Training and Competence Development)
Kungsgatan 8
Box 7785
S-103 96 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 453 72 00
Fax (46-8) 453 72 01
E-mail: info@eupro.se

Svenska Insitutet (the Swedish Institute)
Box 7343
S-103 91 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 789 20 00
Fax (46-8) 20 72 48
E-mail: si@si.se

Svenska kommunförbundet (the Swedish Association of Local Authorities)
S-118 82 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 772 41 00
Fax (46-8) 641 15 35
E-mail: biblioteket@svekom.se

Utbildningsdepartementet (the Ministry of Education and Science)
S-103 33 Stockholm
Tel. (46-8) 405 10 00
Fax (46-8) 723 11 92
E-mail: lena.lunden@education.ministry.se

NB: The above are full postal addresses, but do not contain in most cases the name of the street where the organisation is located.

Annex 3

Bibliography and sources

A. Major sources for the study

This monograph has been based on several sources. The basic starting document is *Continuing vocational training - national report from Sweden* published by the Swedish Ministry of Education and Science, 1994 (CVT-94) within the FORCE project. Information and relevant statistics have been selected from various reports and documents published by Statistics Sweden, the National Agency for Education, the Ministries of Education and Science, Labour and Industry, and Commerce. General references are given below, while specific sources are mentioned in the text.

Chapter 1: General information

Sections 1.1 and 1.2 are to a large extent based on CVT-94. The main source of statistics is *Yearbook of Educational Statistics 1995* published by Statistics Sweden. Section 1.3 is based on *Economic restructuring and industrial policy in Sweden* published by the Ministry of Industry and Commerce, 1995. More specific sources are presented in each section.

Chapter 2: The education system

Section 2.1 on the historical background of Swedish education is based on Paulston, R. (1968), *Educational change in Sweden*, Teachers College Press, and Richardson, G. (1992, editor), *Ett folk börjar skolan. Folkskolan 150 år, 1842–1992* (The 150 year anniversary of the Swedish folk schools), Allmänna förlaget.

Section 2.2 is adapted from CVT-94 and the figures are based on NAE (1996) *Bilden av skolan* (Picture of (Swedish) Schools). Certain parts of the text have been translated from the same NAE report.

Chapter 3: The vocational education and training system

Section 3.1 (to 3.1.9) has been used with the permission of Dr Anders Nilsson from Nilsson, A. and Svärd, B. (1991). *The quantitative development of vocational education in Sweden 1950–1990.* Section 3.2 is a combined used of parts of CVT-94 with major additions (and translations) from NAE-96 *Bilden av skolan* (Picture of schools). Section 3.3, particularly 3.3.1 to 3.3.20, on continuing vocational training is based on information leaflets on labour market policies produced by the Swedish Institute and Swedish National Labour Market Board and *Konjunkturberoende åtgärder. Årsrapport 1995/96. Apra 19972.*

Chapter 4: Regulatory and financial framework

Sections 4.1. and 4.2. are mainly based on CVT-94, while Section 4.3 to a large extent is based on the report *Genomförande av yrkesutbildningsprogrammet Leonardo da Vinci i Sverige. Rapport för den Europeiska kommissionen om de två första årens (1995 och 1996) erfarenheter av programmet* (National Report on the implementation of the Leonardo da Vinci programme 1995–96), Summary produced by Swedish Ministry of Education and Science and Ministry of Labour in collaboration with Statistics Sweden.

Chapter 5: Qualitative aspects

Sections 5.1 and 5.2 are to some extent based on CVT-94, and Section 5.3 'Teachers and trainers in vocational training, Sweden' partly refers to a working document on vocational educational and vocational teachers in Sweden written for Cedefop by Bengt Petersson, Department of Education, University of Gothenburg.

This part of the monograph is written by the author and represents an effort to illuminate some current policy problems in Swedish vocational education and training.

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Annex 4

Glossary of terms

Some conceptual clarifications

Any comparative analysis of schools or adult education has to consider the cultural and philosophical background of the conceptual framework and the terminology used to describe various aspects of learning. The international dialogue on learning is often embedded in common concepts described in the English language. It is not so simple, however, to translate the concept from one's own language. Some examples will be given from a Swedish context.

The first conceptual couple is *bildning and utbildning*. The English synonym for *utbildning* is education. But education is to some extent more than *utbildning*. Education also comprises parts of what we call *bildning* or the German word *Bildung*, which comes closer to education and cultivation. Whereas educators and teachers in the United Kingdom or North America quarrel about the education and training dichotomy, Swedes have their conceptual fight over *bildning* versus *utbildning*.

To complicate this conceptual clarification, it is possible to add the prefixes *ungdoms-, vuxen- and yrkes-* to *utbildning*, which add up to *ungdomsutbildning* (youth education), *vuxenutbildning* (adult education) and *yrkesutbildning* (vocational education). It is not so common, however, to use only *bildning* in these combinations. The word *bildning* is instead united with *folk* (people), *arbetare* (workers) and *själv* (self), which results in *folkbildning* (popular adult education), *arbetarebildning* (workers education), and *självbildning* (self-education).

The Swedish concept of self-education should not be mixed with the concept of self-organised learning or independent study. *Självbildning* (self-education) has more of a collective connotation implying that a certain popular movement organises its own education for its members. *Facklig utbildning* or trade union education is an example of a collectively organised form of learning.

The Swedish conceptual twin of lifelong education is *livslång utbildning*. The expression lifelong education or *livslångt lärande* (lifelong learning) is not only used to characterise adult education but also to spell out the learning potential of youth education.

Starting in the 1970s, the concept of *återkommande utbildning* (recurrent education) became common in Sweden, but nowadays lifelong learning is more widely spread. The Swedish word *personalutbildning* (in-service training or in-company training) is quite extensively used. With regard to the work place, concepts such as *lärande* organisation (learning organisation) and in particular, *kompetensutveckling* (competence development) have been increasingly used during the last decade. In practice, competence development and learning organisations (or learning enterprises) have been more broadly used than vocational education and training.

Adult education/*vuxenutbildning*
A broadly based concept comprising all forms of organised adult learning. Formally, the year of admission to adult education is at the age of 20. In Sweden adult education comprises popular adult education (folk high schools and study circles),

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formal or municipal adult education and employment training and also to some extent in-company training.

Adult student/*vuxenstuderande*
A person above 20 years of age (sometimes 25) participating in organised adult education.

Advanced vocational training/*kvalificerad yrkesutbildning (KY)*
A new experimental vocational training scheme at higher education level with a combination of theoretical knowledge and practical skills needed in current working life.

Basic adult education/*grundläggande vuxenutbildning*
Basic adult education is defined in relation to the formal requirements of compulsory schooling of nine years. In practice, the programme can be quite individualised depending on level of schooling of the adult student. For immigrants with low education background, the focus might be more on literacy, reading and writing and elementary mathematics.

Commissioned education
Courses and training programmes which private or public organisations, mainly enterprises and other employers, buy from schools and training institutes. The provider has to tender and compete with others for the commission.

(Nine-year) comprehensive school/*grundskola*
The school system for children and young people between 7 and 16 years of age.

Compulsory school attendance/*skolplikt*
Sweden applies a system with compulsory schooling for nine years by law. Upper secondary schooling is not formally compulsory but in reality it is necessary in order to embark on the labour market and give the student a basic foundation for future employability

Continuing vocational training/*återkommande yrkesutbildning (CVT)*
CVT covers training activities of short duration, typically short courses of a couple of days or weeks, aimed at updating, refreshing or extending knowledge and skills gained during basic training. Parts of the semi-skilled workers' training incorporates continuing vocational training and must be included here as well. In a time of rapid technological innovation, continuing vocational training will often provide the first introduction to new technology. Training is given either at the workplace or at external courses and organised either by the employer, private or public training organisers or trade/vocational organisations. A major arena for continuing vocational training in Sweden is in-service training, organised and paid for by employers.

Distance education/*distansutbildning*
A learning system where the student belongs to a knowledge network and can adapt his or her study project in time and space with regard to the social, economic and occupational context. Besides the Swedish Educational Broadcasting Company and the two national distance adult schools, a broad experimental scheme is in operation under the Ministry of Education and Science, the so-called DUKOM activity (distance education commission).

Education Act/School Act/*skollag*
The current Education Act dates from 1985 with amendments in 1991 with respect to the new curricula and the upper secondary education reform.

Educational and vocational orientation/*studie- och yrkesorientering (SYO)*
An activity in the school aiming at giving the pupils better guidance about their learning skills and fields of interest on the labour market. There is a special higher education programme for the training of educational and vocational guidance counsellors.

Employment training/*arbetsmarknadsutbildning*
For many years, employment training was provided at local *AMU*-centres specialising in vocational training and flexible upgrading with respect to current labour market demand. Today, the concept of employment training/*arbetsmarknadsutbildning* is more complex. It refers to the purchasing of employment training administered by the regional labour market boards in a new market context with increasing competition between the *AMU*-Group, municipal adult education and new training enterprises.

Employment development programmes/*arbetslivsutveckling (ALU)*
ALU refers to a study-work programme for unemployed adults, which aims at a better working life orientation and also increasing employability. It is not an apprenticeship activity at a certain work place, but more often a simulated work place context. It is important, however, that *ALU*-projects do not compete with or force out ordinary jobs.

Folk high schools/residential schools for adults/*folkhögskolor*
Sweden has today around 135 folk high schools, which are not a part of the formal school system. Many folk high schools have a programme enhancing liberal education, humanities and active citizenship.

(Former) compulsory school/*folkskola*
The label for the first public school in Sweden functioning from 1842 and to the new school reforms in the 1950s and 1960s.

Government commission/*offentlig utredning (SOU)*
Government commissions are in operation under all Swedish ministries. They usually investigate a specific matter (following directives from the government) for one, two or maybe three years. Parliamentary commissions have members of parliament as members, but there are also expert commissions or sometimes a commissioner.

Higher education/*högre utbildning/högskoleutbildning/högskolan*
This concept has two main connotations: the system of higher education institutions and the degree programmes or set of courses being studied by a certain student.

In-company training/*personalutbildning*
This is a form of continuing vocational education and training organised and paid for by the employer. Usually it comprises short courses, practical exercises, study visits or group work, but there are also a growing number of examples with longer courses at higher education level.

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Individual programme/*det individuella utbildningsprogrammet*
The individual programme is functioning as a remedial starter for upper secondary students uncertain about their study goals or just having low motivation for further studies. It can also function as an 'incubation house' for students dropping out from other programmes who need time to reflect and reorient themselves.

Initial vocational training/*grundläggande yrkesutbildning (IVT)*
IVT represents the fundamental education and training within a given trade or occupation. As a general rule, this training provides basic skills and general qualifications, qualifying the newly trained to carry out certain functions in an occupation. In practice, however, it is necessary to add an introductory or apprenticeship period at work before the employee has reached his/her full working potential. In the Swedish education system, this is found in the municipal upper secondary school.

Local school plan/*lokal skolplan*
Each municipality is expected to develop its own policy document on the role of youth education and adult learning options in its area.

Marks/*betyg*
A new system of marks has been introduced in Sweden, in which the assessment of student performance is based on the knowledge and subject structure in each subject. It is also course-based, which means that students no longer get a set of preliminary marks at the end of the semester, but only at the end of the course.

Municipal adult education/*kommunal vuxenutbildning (komvux)*
Municipal adult education with curriculum corresponding to compulsory education and upper secondary education.

National curriculum/*läroplaner för obligatoriska och frivilliga skolväsendet*
Two national curricula are in operation: *LPF 94;1994 års läroplan för de frivilliga skolformerna*/National curriculum for upper secondary schools and municipal adult education and *LPO 94; 1994 års läroplan för det obligatoriska skolväsendet*/National curriculum for the compulsory school.

National evaluation/*nationell utvärdering*
Systems of national evaluation are developed and controlled by the National Agency for Education and the National Swedish Labour Market Board for their respective sectors of responsibility.

Popular adult education/*folkbildning*
This usually comprises folk high schools and study circles. Historically, it also referred to collective learning within popular movements, the development of public libraries and the popular lecture, often connected with university-extension activities.

Practical working life orientation/*praktisk arbetslivsorientering (PRAO)*
Optional learning context aiming at working life introduction for pupils at the upper stage of compulsory education.

Recurrent education/*återkommande utbildning (ÅU)*
Important policy concept mainly used in the 1970s and 1980s promoting the alternation between education, work and leisure activities in a life-span perspective.

School-connected work plan/*skolans arbetsplan*
In the new decentralised school system, increasing responsibility is placed on the local school and in particular the headteacher or the principal. Each school has to develop a school plan as a working document for all educational activities.

Study circles/*studiecirklar*
The most common form of adult learning in Sweden; it consists of a small group of five or more participants meeting over a short period of time to study a certain theme, to learn a new language or to raise their self-confidence.

Supplementary education/*påbyggnadsutbildning*
This covers training programmes linked with existing basic vocational training, or parts thereof, by means of which the student/trainee will typically obtain new vocational qualifications. Examples of supplementary programmes are computer skill courses or training facilitating the use of new equipment at work. Courses could be provided either by the publicly financed adult education system or by in-service training at corporate level.

Swedish for immigrants/*Svenska för invandrare* (SFI)
Optional programme in Swedish language and culture for immigrants provided by municipal educational authorities.

Trainee training/*trainee utbildning*
A temporary programme, carried out as an experiment and introduced in autumn 1994, consisting of a combination of experience at a workplace with advanced theoretical education. It is aimed at attracting skilled members of the labour force who at the same time receive opportunities for increasing their competence in subjects important for the chosen market.

Upper secondary education/*gymnasieskola*
The three year school system for students between 16 and 19 years of age. IVT is a part of this system in Sweden.

Upper secondary education programme/*utbildningsprogram*
There are 16 national education programmes at upper secondary level.

Vocational-technical higher education/*yrkesteknisk högskoleutbildning (YTH)*
A targeted programme for working adults in need of better formal knowledge and updating of their occupational skill. It was introduced in the early 1970s.

Workplace learning modules at upper secondary level/*arbetsplatsförlagd utbildning (APU)*
Compulsory component in vocational programmes, now also optional in theoretical programmes.

Workplace introduction/*arbetsplatsintroduktion (API)*
Labour market measure operated by *AMS* comprising the previously available sub-measures such as *ungdomspraktik, akademikerpraktik, invandrarpraktik och ungdomsinstroduktion* i.e. introductory programmes for youth, academics and immigrants.

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Herstedvang 10-12
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Fax (45) 43 63 19 69
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